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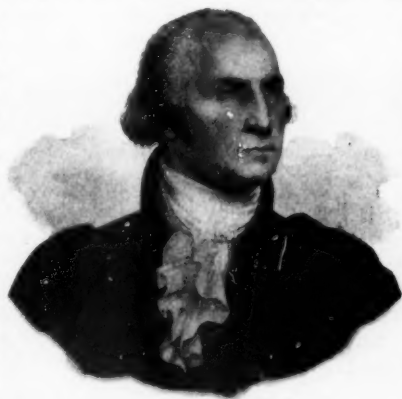
## FOOTPRINTS OF WASHINGTON.

BY H. H. RAGAN.

ON a beautiful June morning I stood on the bank of the Delaware at what was currently known as McConkey's Ferry, now called Washington's Crossing. A long covered wooden bridge now spans the stream, which, swollen by the spring rains, was at the time of my visit fully half a mile wide, and deep, strong, and irresistible in its flow. The scene is calm and peaceful, and gives no suggestion of grim-visaged war. But let us try to picture the same scene on Christmas night, 1776. Great masses of floating ice threatened to crush the frail boats in which Washington and his little army of two thousand four hundred men were crossing. They were going into a province from which they had just been driven by a vastly superior foe, and that foe even then was only waiting for the closing of the river to cross upon the ice and annihilate the poor remnant of the American Army. A blow must be struck then, or all would be lost. "Fear not: you carry Cæsar," said the great Roman to his frightened boatmen

in a somewhat similar situation. No such egotistical exclamation fell from the lips of Washington, but I doubt not he did say often on that fearful night, "Courage: the liberties of America are in your keeping."

It was four o'clock in the morning when the landing on the Jersey shore was effected.



GEORGE WASHINGTON.  
From a painting by Charles Wilson Peale.

Trenton was nine miles away, and the plan to surprise it was already a failure. So bitter cold was it that two men froze to death on that march, while the driving sleet dampened the priming and made the muskets useless. "Forward, and use the bayonet!" was Washington's answer when the disaster reached his ears. "Victory or death" was the appropriate password for the day.

On an elevation in the city of Trenton stands to-day a tall, graceful shaft, erected in 1893 to tell the story of that eventful day. Right where it stands Alexander Hamilton, then a particularly youthful captain of artillery, planted his guns to sweep the street, and from an elevation near it Washington watched and directed the action. The Hes-

sians were routed and defeated, and their commander, as well as most of his troops, was captured. It was indeed, as Washing-

with the now impassable Delaware in the rear, and in front a vastly superior foe, checked only by a narrow and easily fordable



THE HESSIAN HEADQUARTERS AT TRENTON, N. J.

ton himself said as he grasped the hand of the youthful Major Wilkinson, "a glorious day for our country."

There may still be seen in Trenton some few structures which saw that glorious day. Among them is the house which the Hessian colonel Rahl made his headquarters, and where his dying moments were soothed by a visit from Washington and the proffer of all that a generous victor could do for his comfort.

Encumbered as he was with prisoners to almost half the number of his own force, his men worn out with fatigue and hard fighting, Washington recrossed the Delaware without delay. But four days later, finding that his sudden descent had created something like a panic among the enemy, he crossed again, and on the second day of January, 1777, found himself upon the southern bank of Assunpink Creek, just opposite Trenton, apparently at the mercy of the foe. The famous painter John Trumbull, son of Brother Jonathan, has portrayed the great commander at this moment of perplexity and danger.

Night was closing in, and the little army,

stream, seemed doomed to destruction. Indeed the only consideration which prevented Lord Cornwallis from pushing across the stream at once, and perhaps ending the war then and there, was the reflection that it would be an unnecessary exertion for his weary men, since, as he himself put it, he now had the "old fox in a trap" from which he could not possibly escape, and was "sure to bag him in the morning." But he did not. At nightfall the "old fox" called a council of his officers and laid before them a bold, if not an inspired plan. It was instantly adopted. All night the British sentries heard just across the narrow stream the sound of mattock and spade as if the Americans were throwing up strong defensive works. All night they heard the American sentries on post and saw the camp fires blazing. When with the first streaks of dawn the little handful of men who had been keeping up this appearance of occupation suddenly withdrew, the astounded Britons saw before them a deserted camp.

At about the moment of this discovery the British colonel Maywood, with one of the three British regiments left behind at

Princeton, was crossing Stony Creek bridge, two miles from Princeton, on his way to Trenton, there to participate, of course, in the rejoicing over the captured fox, when his eye caught, through the foliage in his rear, the glitter of arms. Supposing it to be some flying fragment of the Americans, he recrossed the bridge to intercept it, and, to his amazement, soon found himself fighting the advance guard of Washington's army. The scene of the battle was a field before a farmhouse occupied by an elderly man named Clark. At first the conflict was unfavorable to the Americans, for almost the first to fall was the brave General Mercer, Washington's devoted friend from the old Fredericksburg days. Desperately wounded, he was carried into the Clark house, where he died, and where the floor is still deeply stained with his blood. Mercer's fall, which occurred in the field at the left of the house, threw his troops into confusion, and the British artillery checked a detachment of militia coming to the rescue. In a moment more the Americans would have given way, when a commanding figure on a white horse rode like a whirlwind into the space between the

troops to charge. At the sound of his voice they sprang forward, and the air was filled with the smoke and dust of the conflict. Washington's aide for a moment lost his beloved commander, gave him up for lost, and drew his hat over his eyes to shut out what he dreaded to see. But when the smoke cleared away there rode the chief, waving his hat and cheering his men upon the flying enemy.

Another detachment having scattered the second of the British regiments, the troops pushed on to Princeton, where they found the remaining British force barricaded in old Nassau Hall, the original building of Princeton College. A brief bombardment compelled them to capitulate, and the "old fox," instead of reposing quietly in Cornwallis' game bag at Trenton, was master of Princeton, while the would-be holder of the game bag was metaphorically tearing his hair in his anxiety for the safety of his stores at Brunswick.

A peculiar incident of the bombardment of Princeton was the fact that the very first cannon ball fired into the town by the Americans entered old Nassau Hall and



WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT VALLEY FORGE.

contending forces and, exposed to the hottest fire from friend and foe, Washington waved his hat and called upon his hesitating

shot the head clean away from the large portrait of King George III. which hung upon the wall. The frame was uninjured,

and it hangs upon the wall to this day, but, the whole country from its base to the sea happily, it now contains the portrait of a better man,—that of Washington himself. a natural watchtower of which Washington For the damage done to the college building by the bombardment Washington paid the college authorities two hundred and fifty dollars out of his own pocket. They took the money, and with it had a portrait of him, with the face of the dying Mercer in the lower right hand corner and old Nassau Hall in the distance on the left, painted by the renowned artist Charles Wilson Peale, and this portrait it is that now fills the frame.



WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT MORRISTOWN, N. J.

Washington had no thought of attempting to hold Princeton at this time. On the contrary he left it unoccupied and pushed on to Morristown, where the winter was spent watching and bitterly harassing the chagrined and humiliated Cornwallis at Brunswick. In May Washington removed to Middleburg, where on the elevated ridges of the Watchung Mountains he could keep a closer watch on the enemy. A favorite point of observation here was a great boulder, well known in all that region as Wash-

could never have failed to take advantage. From it with his glass he could watch the movements of the enemy at Brunswick and even keep an eye on Staten Island and New York.

In the valley below, in full view from this rock, is the beautiful little city of Plainfield, of whose hospitality Washington partook at the old Harberger Mansion, still one of the most charming of Plainfield's many charming homes.

At length Sir William Howe, who by this time was in command at Brunswick in place of Cornwallis, finding it impossible to draw Washington down from his strong position and not daring to march to the Delaware leaving such a force in his rear, evacuated the Jerseys and returned to New York. Then came months of most intense anxiety. Burgoyne and St. Leger were penetrating the country with startling success upon the north, while a great fleet was sailing out of New York Harbor to make a descent no one knew where. Washington



BRONZE STATUE OF LAFAYETTE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

ington's rock. Pushed forward as it is from the mountain ridge, and standing higher than any other point in the vicinity, with must watch the game at all points, divine the secret plans of the enemy, and with the puniest means defeat them.



While on a visit to Philadelphia at this period, keeping watch there for the reappearance of the British fleet, Washington met for the first time a young Frenchman, whose statue in bronze to-day conspicuously adorns the great square in the city of Washington, and whose name will ever be held in honor by the American people,—the generous, impulsive, noble Lafayette.

Now, to the astonishment of every one, the long lost British fleet reappeared in the Chesapeake, making for Philadelphia by the longest way around, which in this case proved to be the shortest way there. Washington met it at Yorktown, but, with a force at least a third smaller and a thousand or more of his men barefooted, was inevitably compelled to fall back, and at last at the battle of Brandywine to give way and permit the enemy to occupy Philadelphia.

Soon followed the battle of Germantown, in which the old Chew Mansion, still standing and still occupied by the Chew family, played an important part. At the beginning of the action, which was an attack by the Americans upon the British encamped here, six companies of the enemy threw themselves into this house and from its upper windows poured a galling fire upon the American troops compelled to pass it. A fruitless effort to dislodge them delayed the main action for an hour, and perhaps decided adversely to the Americans the fate of the battle.

A few more weeks of skirmishing, without important results, and the disheartened little army, compelled to seek some sort of shelter for its nakedness and at the same time to remain near enough to the enemy to prevent his venturing far from his comfortable quarters, marched directly to Valley Forge. On the 19th of December, 1777, the army went into encampment there, and the soldiers immediately began to build themselves huts, remaining wholly exposed to the pelting storms until they were finished. Washington himself continued to live in his tent, without fire and with little protection of any kind from the weather, until the men were housed and the camp fortified. Then he took up his headquarters in the house our illustration shows.

In February Mrs. Washington came, and not only cheered the soldiers by her presence but, it is said, turned her inveterate habit of knitting to good account in providing some of the poor fellows with much-needed stockings.

During that fearful winter Washington



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

From a painting by John Trumbull. Yale University.

was reorganizing the army and concerting with congress plans for the next campaign, while enemies in high places, in congress and in the army, were striving to blacken his character and destroy his influence. It is told that the owner of the Valley Forge headquarters, Mr. Isaac Pitts, while walking in the valley one morning heard a solemn voice, and moving silently in its direction saw Washington's horse tied to a sapling

and the chief kneeling in fervent prayer. Whether or not just this scene ever occurred, there can be no doubt that the recesses of these forests have often echoed his supplications to that Providence in whom he firmly trusted and to whose favor he always attributed the final issue of the great conflict. And well might he conceive the need of prayer. Hard indeed for his generous soul to endure the sight of his devoted soldiers, the bloody prints of whose bare feet in the snow had marked every step of the march

to commemorate this victory stands in a conspicuous position in the village of Freehold, New Jersey, upon ground on which occurred one of the skirmishes preliminary to the main battle, which took place some three and a half miles to the westward of that spot. At the beginning of the action Washington received information that General Lee, with the advance, was retreating. Driving the spurs into his horse he dashed forward, rebuked the retreating general with a passionate outburst such as never before fell from



WASHINGTON'S ROCK, PLAINFIELD, N. J.

to this place, now freezing and starving in their wretched huts, yet bearing their sufferings with a patience and fortitude which were nothing less than sublime! But on the 1st of May came the news that France had acknowledged our independence and espoused our cause. The enemy took the hint and evacuated Philadelphia. Washington followed him through the Jerseys, and at Monmouth Court-house inflicted upon him a heavy blow.

A graceful shaft erected a few years ago

his lips, checked the flying troops, turned them squarely about, and sent them, inspired by his voice, to a glorious victory.

But the campaigns of 1778 and of 1779 were on the whole indecisive, and the winter of '79 and '80 found Washington again at Morristown, where he occupied a house provided for him by the town authorities and where, during a winter so severe as to freeze over New York Harbor, the soldiers suffered scarcely less than at Valley Forge.

*(To be concluded.)*

## THE TARIFF IN LEGISLATION.

BY JAMES ALBERT WOODBURN, PH.D.

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NO subject in the history of American politics and legislation has been more constantly before the public than the tariff. There have been many times when other subjects have taken precedence, when the people have cast their votes with reference to the settlement of other issues; but invariably after these have been settled or put aside the tariff comes again into political circles and congressional halls for discussion and legislation. When the great-grandfathers of the young voters of to-day were casting their first votes, in the days when Daniel Webster was young and before Mr. McKinley was born, the tariff was a prime cause of political division among the people. As Mr. Blaine says, "The tariff question has been more frequently and more elaborately debated than any other issue since the foundation of the federal government," and "more than any other issue, it represents the enduring and persistent line of division between the two parties which, in a generic sense, have always existed in the United States."

The literature of the subject is immense. In attempting a *résumé* of the legislative history of the tariff in a brief magazine article one can hope only to present the great landmarks of the subject and to indicate their significance. Any full account of the interests and arguments involved, of the speeches of public men, of the changes in the rates and the schedules, and of the detailed provisions of the laws would be a tedious story for the busy reader. The special student will look for these in the volumes devoted to the theme.

Those who wish not to be considered culpably ignorant on the history of our tariff laws will seek to understand the general significance of the following tariff acts and to know the epochs during which they have operated:

C-Apr.

The first tariff act, passed July 4, 1789.

The act of 1816, claimed by many to be the first protective tariff,—certainly the first act for the purpose of protection as well as of revenue.

The act of 1824, in which the protective system was definitely approved and adopted.

The act of 1828, increasing the rates over those of 1824, called by its opponents the "Tariff of Abominations." This was the act which was resisted so vigorously by the South and which led to the nullification troubles in South Carolina.

The act of 1832, modifying the rates of 1828; and the Compromise Tariff of 1833, providing for a sliding scale of reduction, within ten years, to an abandonment of the protective system.

The Whig Tariff of 1842, restoring protection.

The act of 1846, known as the Walker Tariff, a tariff for revenue only, seemingly a final abandonment of protection.

The act of 1857, still lowering the rates in the line of a purely revenue tariff.

The Morrill Tariff of 1861, raising the rates and involving the restoration of protection.

The War Tariff and its modifications from 1861 to 1888, and the late revenue acts known as the McKinley Bill of 1890 and the Wilson Bill of 1894.

The reader may find it convenient in following our tariff history to keep this outline in mind.

The first tariff act, of July 4, 1789, assessed *ad valorem* duties, the rates averaging about five per cent. There were higher rates on certain luxuries, the highest being about 15 per cent on carriages. There were also certain specific duties on articles like hemp, cordage, nails, iron manufactures, and glass. Each party to the tariff controversy refers to this act as a justification

of its contention. The anti-protectionist claims that the act was a measure purely for revenue and that the purpose of securing protection was not an essential factor in its passage. The protectionist, in support of his view, quotes the preamble of the bill, which recites that it "is necessary for the support of government, for the discharge of the debts of the United States, and for the encouragement and protection of manufactures, that duties be laid on imported goods, wares, and merchandise"; and the debates are referred to as involving the protection argument full grown. The truth seems to be that the men who framed the first tariff proposed to secure incidental protection while securing the necessary revenue for the new government.

For twenty years the policy of seeking moderate protection while imposing customs revenues continued. The War of 1812 cut off all trade relations with Great Britain. We doubled our import duties for the purpose of securing greater revenues, but the almost total disappearance of our foreign trade disappointed this expectation. We were thrown back on home manufactures for our supplies, and during the war a great impetus was given to manufacturing establishments in America. The war acted like a high protective tariff, securing a monopoly of the home market to the new factories which sprang up in all directions. Consequently, when the war was over and foreign goods again began to come in, many of our manufacturing establishments were pushed to the wall. It was generally recognized that the competition which they would be obliged to encounter would be too much for them without some help from government by discriminating duties. It was in this situation and with this idea in view that the tariff act of 1816 was passed. Higher duties were granted, chiefly on textile fabrics for a limited period. Cotton and woolen goods were to pay 25 per cent until 1819 and after that to pay 20 per cent, and there was a general increase of duties to an average of about 20 per cent. This was not as effective protection as the manufacturers had petitioned for, and Clay, then, as ever after-

wards, a leader of the protective view, urged that the close of the war especially was a period in which a sufficient protection should be granted. The political aspects of the tariff of 1816 are interesting. Webster opposed the tariff, as he considered the mercantile interests of New England then demanded, while Calhoun spoke forcibly for the protective system. Calhoun evidently hoped that cotton manufacture would grow up side by side with its production and he looked to the protective system as a means of defense and provision in times of war. Ten years later we find Webster and Calhoun still opposing each other on the tariff, but each had changed his position.

Following 1816 there was a contraction of the currency, followed by a rapid and disastrous fall in prices, which precipitated the memorable panic of 1819. The decline in price of manufactured goods gave rise to an increased agitation for protection. The rates of 1816 were retained in 1818, and in 1820 an effort to pass a higher protective tariff barely failed by a single vote in the Senate. It was at this time—1819-20—that the protection movement may be said to have begun. There were protectionists and protective acts before this, but the body of opinion favoring this policy had not yet become solidified and organized. Now societies were formed and agencies established for the promotion of protective sentiment and protective legislation. The Middle and Western States were the leaders in this,—New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Kentucky. They had felt the losses of the panic most, and the agriculturists with lands and products sadly depreciated began to insist upon an advantage, or a monopoly, in the home market. New England, which was the importing section of the country, and which had not yet become a manufacturing section, was still in opposition. The South was decisively in the opposition. That section had come to believe that its manufactured goods would have to be bought either in the North or in Europe and that a protective tariff made them dearer.

The protective advocates succeeded in securing higher rates by the act of 1824. On

cotton and woolen goods the rates were put up from 25 to 33 per cent, and there were increased duties on iron, lead, wool, hemp, and cotton bagging. The manufacturers of cotton goods were by this time almost independent of the tariff, since there was abundance of raw material at hand; but makers of woolen goods were not so fortunate, and the tariff of 1824, by placing a duty of 30 per cent on imported wool, did not materially improve the situation of the woolen manufacturer. For a very short time after 1824 our woolen trade improved and the manufacturers were making a profit; but prices were soon depressed by England's admission of free wool to her manufacturers, by which these were enabled to underbid our makers in our own market. It was the woolen makers, chiefly, who pushed for higher rates in 1828. The tariff of 1828 applied to woolens the principle of minimum valuations which had been applied to cotton goods in 1816. For instance, all goods costing less than 40 cents a yard were to pay duty as if they had cost 40 cents; all costing between 40 cents and \$2.50 were to pay as if they had cost \$2.50; all costing between \$2.50 and \$4.00 were charged as if they had cost \$4.00. While the rate was nominally left at 33 per cent it will be seen that on most importations it would be much beyond this; it was practically a specific duty on certain grades of cloth which it was claimed were assessed *ad valorem*. Cheap goods were taxed at a higher rate than dear goods, and the temptation to undervalue goods coming near the minimum line was very great. The tariff of 1828, also, assessed a heavy increase of duties on almost all raw materials,—on pig iron, bar iron, hemp, flax, and wool. This was done to vex New England and to detach New England support from the bill. Politics was behind this measure, and to understand the "Tariff of Abominations," which men of both parties voted for and men of no party liked, it will be necessary to understand the political influences and motives behind the scheme. The two parties were the Jackson party and the Adams party, in 1828. The Adams men were the more pronounced protectionists; but the

Jackson men could not afford to alienate certain protection states. Therefore, in collusion with southern men who, it was agreed, should withdraw their support at the right time, the Jackson leaders decided to report a tariff bill so obnoxious to New England that the latter would refuse to support it and thus the Adams men could be held responsible before the people for its defeat. But to the surprise of the authors of the bill the Adams men voted for and carried the measure. It satisfied no one and led to violent opposition in the South, culminating in the nullification movement. The influence of this movement caused in 1832 a modification of the tariff of 1828, a modification which substantially reverted to the rates of 1824 while retaining, decidedly, the protective principle. This was not satisfactory to the South and nullification and resistance still continued. The Compromise Tariff of 1833 was the result. This remained in force until 1842, and, as stated before, provided for a sliding scale of reduction, taking off one tenth of the excess over 20 per cent. Every year until 1841 half the remaining excess was to be removed and in 1842 the balance, making a uniform rate of 20 per cent. The reductions the last two years were very heavy, in some instances from 65 per cent to 20 per cent. This upset the calculations of importers despite the long warning which had been given.

The Whig Tariff of 1842 was a party measure and was professedly protective. No decisive popular sentiment seemed to be behind this measure and Mr. Calhoun asserts that it was passed by the Whigs in order to secure a party issue. By this time the farming sections in the West and South were leaning more and more toward free trade, while the protective sentiment was concentrating more and more into the manufacturing centers.

The Whig Tariff of 1842 was repealed in 1846 and was superseded by the Walker Tariff,—a tariff for revenue only. This tariff deserves special notice. Robert J. Walker, Mr. Polk's secretary of the treasury, was a determined opponent of the protective system. He submitted a report from his de-



partment in 1846 in which he discussed the tariff in a very able paper, which, his admirers have asserted, deserves to rank with Hamilton's famous report on manufactures. Mr. Walker's report was, of course, distasteful to his opponents, the advocates of protection; but it is a classic on the free trade side of the argument and undoubtedly marks an important stage of tariff legislation and discussion in this country. The principles which Secretary Walker urged were these:

1. No more money should be collected than is necessary for the wants of the government economically administered.
2. No duty should be imposed on any article above the lowest rate which will yield the largest amount of revenue. A lower rate might be less protective; but, as he would not sacrifice revenue to secure protection neither would he sacrifice revenue to avoid protection.
3. Below the revenue point discriminations might be made, or articles might be placed on the free list.
4. A maximum revenue duty should be imposed on all luxuries.
5. All minimum and specific duties should be abolished and *ad valorem* duties substituted, care being taken to guard against fraudulent invoices and undervaluation.

The tariff law of 1846 was framed on these principles and is probably the best representative in our history of a purely Democratic revenue tariff. There is a radical school of free traders in America who would abolish all customhouse taxation; but the Walker Tariff of 1846 probably represents the great mass of so-called free traders in America, and they point to the great prosperity in this country between 1846 and 1857 as a vindication of their experiment and their view. The protectionist accounts for this prosperity in other ways,—by the expansion of railroad building, by the healthy immigrations of 1848-9, by the acquisition of new territory and expansion westward, and especially by the discovery of gold in California and the consequent increase of our money supply.

Redundant revenues led to a modification of the Walker Tariff in 1857. A re-

duction of duties was made but the principles of the tariff of 1846 were retained. The tariff law of 1857 was not a subject of party strife and, as Mr. Taussig says, it was the first tariff since 1816 not affected by politics. The law met with comparatively no opposition outside of Pennsylvania, and it seemed that the country had finally accepted the revenue basis for our tariffs.

The panic of 1857 and the consequent depression caused a revival of the agitation for protection. In 1861 the Morrill Tariff Act was passed. This began a change toward higher duties and a renewal of protection. The increase of duties provided for in this act was not caused by the necessities of war, as is often supposed, for the act was passed by the House in the session of 1859-60. The decline in revenues and the desire of the new Republican party to appeal for support in certain protective states have been assigned as the influences behind this act. Specific duties were substituted for *ad valorem* duties, and this is considered usually as an essential difference between a protective and a revenue tariff. The supporters of the Morrill Act declared their intention to be to restore the rates of 1846; but the specific duties assessed made the rates really higher. The most notable changes were the increased duties on iron and wool. It may be said that protection had again set in.

The war tariff acts were passed in 1862 and 1864. These acts should be considered in connection with the internal revenue measures of those years. The great expenses of the war made necessary a great increase in the internal taxes of the country. While in charge of the tariff act which became a law July 14, 1862, Mr. Morrill of Vermont, chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means, explained that the additional duties were required in order to leave the home producers in the same situation with reference to foreign competition in which they were before the new internal taxes were laid. After the greater internal revenue measure of June 30, 1864, the same reason existed for again increasing the customs duties, which was done by a tariff act of the same date. The two acts of 1862 and 1864 were protective

in their intention, and the act of 1864, placing the duties at an average of about 47 per cent, was the basis of our customs revenue policy for many years. The act of 1864 is the one referred to in the oft-quoted expression "the War Tariff."

There have been numerous tariff proposals and discussions since the Civil War, but not many tariff measures have deserved a very worthy place in our history. The recent tariff acts known as the McKinley Bill and the Wilson-Gorman Bill have attracted much attention in politics and will become historic. Efforts to reduce the War Tariff were made for many years without success, although the internal taxes of the war which had been urged as one of the reasons for the higher duties had been abolished soon after the war had ceased. The great problem of reconstruction for years absorbed public attention; the sentiment for protection had grown and the protected interests were strong; the business interests of the country were conservative, and it seemed probable that the War Tariff rates would be accepted as a permanent system. But in the West there was a strong demand for the reduction of tariff rates, and the act of 1870 was passed to reduce this form of taxation. But the reductions were chiefly on the revenue articles,—articles like sugar, coffee, tea, etc., such as were not produced in this country. The duty on pig iron, a protective article, was lowered from \$9.00 to \$7.00 per ton; but on many other protective articles the duty was raised. So the act of 1870 was even more protective than ever. An act of 1872 conceded a ten per cent horizontal reduction, and certain revenue articles, tea and coffee, were placed on the free list.

The next important tariff act was that of 1883. Between 1864 and 1883 there were several minor and detailed acts touching specific articles, which can only be mentioned here. These usually provided further and safer protection for such articles as woollens, cottons, iron ore, and steel rails. But the act of 1883 was the first since 1864 which attempted a general revision of the tariff. In 1882 a protectionist Congress passed an act for the appointment of a tariff commission

which was instructed to report at the next session of Congress what changes it thought desirable. The majority of the commission were protectionists. Their report was submitted to Congress in the session of 1882-3, and the Senate passed a bill in harmony with its proposed reductions. But the House disagreed and in the committee of conference the bill was amended in the direction of protection. In important instances, as woolen cloths, cotton goods, iron ore, and steel, the rates were advanced over those of preceding acts. Reductions were made on cheap grades of cotton goods, on pig iron, on steel rails, on copper, marble, nickel, and other articles, while usually on agricultural articles the duties remained unchanged.

The McKinley Bill of 1890, and the Wilson Bill of 1894 are the latest statutes changing our tariff schedules. Both acts involve merely a change of schedules, not a change of principle. The McKinley Bill was one of high protection, higher than many Republicans considered necessary. It placed sugar upon the free list and protected the sugar growers at home by a bounty of two cents a pound on sugars below a certain grade. It also provided for reciprocity in certain other articles, placing upon the free list sugars, molasses, hides, tea, and coffee, and empowering the president to reimpose duties on these if at any time the countries from which they were imported refused reciprocal free rates to our products. Like all tariff measures which are supposed to provide for diversified interests, the McKinley Bill was the product of conflicting interests and enforced concessions.

The Gorman-Wilson measure, the last general revision of the tariff, although enacted by a party which had denounced protection as unconstitutional, was made almost entirely on the principle of protection. The Wilson Bill as it originally passed the House considerably modified the McKinley Act, lowering the duties on an average of 20 per cent. But so many amendments were added in the Senate prompted by protected interests that tariff-for-revenue men were ready to disclaim it, and the bill may fairly be said to be a maintenance of the protective

system. Speaking generally, the new act merely readjusted the rates. The original bill placed iron ore, coal, lumber, and wool on the free list and generally substituted *ad valorem* rates for specific. Raw sugar was left free, as under the McKinley Act, but the bounty to sugar growers was repealed. The Senate amendments took all these raw materials from the free list except wool and lumber. Considerable reductions were made from the McKinley Act on woolens, china, and glassware. Miscellaneous reductions may be said to have been made from an average of about 50 per cent to an average

of about 37½ per cent. To compensate for the great decrease in duties which the reductions involved an income tax was provided for, which has since been set aside by a Supreme Court decision.

At the close of the nineteenth century the American financial historian might find storehouses of material for a legislative history of the American tariff. He would be dissatisfied to treat so vast a subject short of a voluminous octavo. But even on a theme of such extensive scope the general reader may find benefit in such a cursory sketch as we have attempted.

## THE AIR WE BREATHE.

BY SYDNEY A. DUNHAM, M. D.

LECTURER ON PHYSIOLOGY, MEDICAL DEPARTMENT, NIAGARA UNIVERSITY.

### V.

#### TUBERCULOSIS AS INFLUENCED BY CLIMATIC CONDITIONS.

A COLD, moist climate is always unfavorable for consumptives, while a warm, dry one is always favorable. In climates where there is almost an immunity from consumption we notice that there is also abundance of sunshine, and that more time is spent in the open air. When invalids go to the mountains for relief, the secret of their improvement in health is found not in the high altitude and dry air alone, but in the purity of the air and the outdoor life. Some climates are more favorable to outdoor life than others. In Colorado we find a more equable temperature, more sunshine, with dryness of the air and other favorable conditions which accompany higher altitudes. It is the nomadic life of the mountaineer that makes him strong and swarthy, and not the air alone.

Probably there is no disease that is more influenced by atmospheric changes than consumption; therefore, constant meteorological conditions, sunny and equable, give the most ideal atmosphere. The sun boxes<sup>1</sup> of Switzerland have proved themselves an incalculable adjunct in the treatment of this disease and are needed to-day in other

countries. Baruch of New York, in an article published by him but a short time ago, insisted that "it will be a glorious day for medicine when the cardinal principle of tuberculosis or consumptive therapy<sup>2</sup> will be realized to be an abundance of pure air, to facilitate the entrance of which into the lungs every effort should be made, together with a perfect hygienic environment."

Surely the principal thing for a consumptive is pure, outdoor air; because any other favors the development of the disease. Sunny air improves nutrition, while aseptic<sup>3</sup> air aids in the repair of tissue.

A disease so common and fatal to human life as consumption needs more than a mere mention in an article bordering so closely upon climato-therapy.<sup>4</sup> The following quotations, which express the experience of every physician, contain valuable information and will prove a benefit to any one suffering from that disease which is always attended by such characteristic hopefulness.

Dr. A. Tucker Wise speaks of the qualities and benefits of the atmosphere of the Alps as follows:

"Dryness of the air and freedom from microorganisms, mechanical irritants, and noxious gases, low temperature, profusion of sunlight, diminished atmospheric pressure, and ozoniferous atmosphere are

the most marked peculiarities. The result on pulmonary complaints is that by breathing aseptic air, free from dust, irritation with recurrence of infection by microbes in the respiratory tract is greatly lessened; vaporization of morbid secretions in the lungs takes place, promoted by reduced barometric pressure and dryness of the atmosphere. There is increased oxidation of blood and tissue from sunlight, a general improvement in nutrition and glandular secretion, and an exhilarating effect on the nervous system."

Dr. J. W. Robertson says as regards the climate of California:

"A coast climate extending through eight degrees of latitude, where snow is phenomenal and frost rare, where the mean daily, monthly, and annual temperature varies within a few degrees only, where the bright, sunshiny days are the rule and sultry ones unknown, where the fresh salt air so invigorates as to prove an exhilarating tonic, and where flagging energies and a toneless system are revived and thrown into a state of the highest tension, commands recognition.

"Climatically speaking, the therapeutic area of southern California is small. It is limited to those localities only which are directly influenced by the ocean breeze, and extends but a few miles inland. The majority of invalids look to Los Angeles as to a new Mecca. This climate speaks so strongly for itself, it is so mild and delightful, that the most caviling cannot find fault, and the individual susceptible to the slightest chill utters no complaint.

"Consumptives in advanced stages of the disease should remain at home."

It is claimed by some that damp soil and low lands favor consumption and that the elevations from fifteen hundred to three thousand feet above sea level are quite free from it. When we remember that consumption is more commonly found in town and city life, that the great centers of population are located in the valleys, and that consumption is spread by the germ known as the tubercle bacillus,<sup>5</sup> we believe the disease is less dependent upon climate and soil than we formerly supposed.

Great numbers of persons afflicted with a disease which is contagious and infectious, like tuberculosis, with a death rate from fifteen to twenty per cent of the total mortality, taking up their residence in small towns or cities must have an unsanitary effect upon the living rooms and atmosphere unless there is the greatest carefulness in regard to disinfection and personal hygiene. Flick says in a single ward in Philadelphia thirty-three per

cent of the infected houses had more than one case.

The articles of clothing should be boiled, table utensils should be thoroughly washed, and the patient's room well ventilated and at stated intervals thoroughly disinfected. These preventives are absolutely needed, because tuberculosis is a communicable disease and every new case has received the infection from another person suffering from the disease or possibly from some of the lower animals.

The laity are just beginning to appreciate that consumption is a contagious disease and are willing to give the physician a helping hand by carrying out the best means for disinfecting the expectorations wherein lie the chief source of the contagion.

The germ of consumption is not exhaled into the air and, like other germs, is not found in the breath. Cadaec and Malet placed healthy sheep opposite others affected with anthrax<sup>6</sup> and sheep pox and allowed them to breathe for long intervals through short tubes, but they never were successful in producing the disease in those which were healthy through the breath of diseased animals.

Bacteria do not easily leave the moist surfaces of the lungs and it is only possible for expired air to carry germs when sputum or mucous shreds are mixed with it.

## VI.

### OTHER DISEASES AS INFLUENCED BY CLIMATIC CONDITIONS.

CERTAIN climatic conditions cause disease, while others cure. Atmosphere influences the various functions of the body by its action upon secretion, excretion, respiration, and circulation. The climate of the East Indies predisposes the inhabitants to affections of the liver. The Egyptians are liable to ophthalmia, diarrhea, and typhoid and relapsing fevers, while consumption and rheumatism are almost unknown among them and insanity is still more rare. Pellagra<sup>7</sup> is common in Italy and malaria in China.

Climate has given us the races of men and, like vegetables, they do best in their



natural climate and soil, but when moved from one climate to another they slowly become adapted to the new atmospheric influences and after a time become acclimated. Life insurance companies have learned the importance of assuring themselves that the applicant has been acclimated before accepting the risk. The health of the European is always impaired by the climate of India and that of the Nile region. Tropical fruits are grown with difficulty in the temperate zones.

Asthma can be considered a typical climatic disease, and a change from the low land to the hillside may relieve it, while again sufferers on the hillside may find relief by going to the lowlands. There have been instances where persons have suffered from asthma for years in a certain locality and have found freedom from the malady by going from a lower to a higher altitude or from a cold and moist climate to a warm and dry, although not more than twenty miles away. The predisposition of the patient is always a potent factor, while the emanations from certain substances—such as phosphorus and sulphur, pollen, or even the smell of some domestic animals—may be active agents in producing the disease.

Humidity, fogs, cold, and sudden changes in the temperature predispose to rheumatism; also to catarrh of the mucous surfaces of the respiratory and digestive tract. In the moist, warm air of swamps and marshes we find people predisposed to malaria. Thermic conditions are always associated with such diseases as cholera morbus and cholera infantum, and the greater the heat the more prevalent and severe the disease. The nervous system is depressed when the temperature is high. Diseases of the organs of respiration are more common in cold weather. Diseases of the digestive type, including the liver, stomach, and intestines, we find more prevalent in hot weather, while a cold and moist atmosphere favors rheumatism. A hot and moist atmosphere conduces to fever; a hot and dry atmosphere favors tuberculosis, black death, scarlet fever, diphtheria, and a large variety of other diseases produced by microorganisms, because this condition of

the air favors the transmigration of germs. Certain mountain valleys, especially those of Switzerland, produce goiter. Organic heart troubles are aggravated by a rare atmosphere, and, if the diminished pressure be great, syncope<sup>8</sup> may be produced on account of the greater demand upon the organs of circulation and respiration which we find accompanies the high altitudes.

The frequency of pneumonia seems to be governed by certain meteorological conditions which depend upon the temperature of air. Directly or indirectly, a low temperature causes not only pneumonia but a variety of lung troubles associated with inflammatory conditions.

Cold air, when the change comes on suddenly, by contracting the blood vessels of the surface of the body may produce diarrhea. Travelers have often observed this on coming from the warm air of the South and suddenly meeting the cold waves from the North. There may be an increased action of the kidneys by a change from hot to cold air. Salt air has a soothing effect upon nervous people and is also invigorating. Cold atmosphere lowers the temperature of the body by slowing the combustion of the tissues, which lessens the amount of heat produced when the vital functions require more, and has a tendency to increase the death rate among those who are debilitated and aged.

Moist air prevents evaporation from the glands of the skin and also the exhalations from the lungs, thereby diminishing the excrementitious products of the body from two out of three of its chief emunctory organs. The transparent, moderately warm, and moist air is not irritating and is always beneficial. Cloudy, moist, and cold atmosphere, with sudden changes in temperature, favors rheumatism and congestion of the vocal organs. The result is that soprano singers become scarce, and tenors uncertain, while contraltos and basses are numerous. Hippocrates<sup>9</sup> was the first to notice the effects of this condition of the atmosphere when he observed that the Phasians<sup>10</sup> of all men had rough voices, from breathing a misty, humid air. Relative humidity depends upon the changes



in the temperature producing heat and cold. At a temperature of sixty-six Fahrenheit humidity is seventy-five; when the temperature drops to sixty the air then is saturated, and still lower temperature produces rain. Vapor is always precipitated from the air when the temperature which supports saturation suddenly drops.

Dry air of itself may be desirable, but when associated with a low temperature, as the freezing point, it is harsh and irritating to the mucous surface of the respiratory organs and often produces inflammation of those surfaces, or catarrh. In dry air, with a high temperature, as when the thermometer stands at ninety, we find diarrhea, dysentery, and cholera prevalent, which is evidently due to the easy transmigration of microorganisms as much as to the heat which encourages fermentation of foods.

Zymotic<sup>1</sup> diseases and various epidemics accompany or follow great droughts, or seasons of dry weather. When cholera prevailed in this country in 1830 and 1849 there was very little rain.

If a dry or a moist air with a great range of temperature influences those who are well, much more will these conditions affect those who are suffering from disease.

Dry air may abstract an excessive amount of moisture from the mucous membranes in the higher altitudes on account of the rarification of the atmosphere. On high mountains evaporation is increased and the process of desiccation is so great that travelers find it very difficult to overcome the disturbances produced by it. A dry, cold air is the common cause of the frequency of chapped hands and lips in the cold season of the year. A warm, moist, and relaxing air excites perspiration and relieves congestion of the mucous membranes and internal organs. Moist air is a good conductor of heat as well as electricity, and it is with this condition of the air that we find the emanations from marshy districts and the volatile substances from flowers and plants more noticeable in the early morning and before and after rains.

The hygrometer, an instrument which determines the degree of atmospheric moisture, usually begins to fall as the altitude in-

creases until at the tops of high mountains the air shows only about one fourth of its usual amount of water. The air usually contains only about one half the water which would be necessary to saturate it. Water evaporates because the air takes it up and the drier the air the more rapid is the evaporation. A cold and moist air abstracts the heat of the body and we feel cold, although the thermometer does not indicate cold weather.

Moist air prevents the healthy excretions from the skin, such as urea and carbonic acid gas. The skin with its innumerable glands for excretion is the chief source of regulating the heat of the body. These glands are compensatory to the kidneys, and when interfered with the functions of the body suffer, the internal organs are more likely to be congested, and chronic congestion leads to degeneration.

Moist air lowers the barometer, lessens the oxygen, lessens evaporation, diminishes excretion, and thereby increases the liability to auto-infection, or self-poisoning. This may account for the indisposition, the muscular pains and aches of those people who are so susceptible to barometric changes which are always aggravated on cold, moist, and cloudy days.

Watery vapor is a constant constituent of the atmosphere, although the most variable of them all. It varies according to the temperature from a minimum quantity in cold air to a maximum in the hot. The air that is exhaled from man is usually saturated with moisture, and if breathed into a cold room, or upon cold glass, it precipitates and becomes visible. This accounts for the appearance of drops of water upon the outside of the ice pitcher in a heated room or upon a hot summer's day. When the atmosphere has taken up all the moisture possible to a given temperature we call it saturated; and when the temperature is suddenly lowered it is condensed in the form of dew or rain. The degree of temperature at which the condensation takes place has been long known as the dew point. The heat given off from the earth's surface into the cold air of the night accounts for the dewdrops, with their

many beauties and uses, on the following morning. The constancy of moisture in the air is important in sustaining life of all kinds. If man were taken from the moist air to the absolutely dry, although there be plenty of oxygen, he would be like a fish out of water and would soon find himself gasping for breath. The usefulness of moisture in the atmosphere around us is just as great as within the cellular changes of animal and vegetable life, where it prevents friction and aids in the digestion and assimilation of food necessary for their growth and maintenance.

Although density of the air depends on temperature, yet the latter seems to have a wider influence over the bodily functions than the former. The normal temperature of the body and that of all warm-blooded animals is not influenced by external air. Cold-blooded animals, on the other hand, have a temperature varying according to the medium in which they live. Sudden variation in temperature by influencing the circulation locally or generally soon leads to disease, which in turn causes the normal temperature to vary.

It is not the high nor the low temperature which influences health directly, but the varying amounts of humidity and oxygen associated with these conditions. If heated the air contains less oxygen because of its being rarified; cold air with the same degree of purity would contain more oxygen because of its density. The consumption of oxygen is diminished by high temperature because of its enervating effect upon the system, and no doubt this accounts for the indisposition and lethargy of those living in hot climates. Great mental and physical work is accomplished with difficulty by the natives of the tropics.

In changing from a hot to a cold climate suddenly the circulation of the various organs is disturbed and the excretions of the body are altered in quality and quantity. This general physical disturbance could be anticipated and no doubt better realized by observing the effects of cold when applied only to certain portions of the skin; for example, getting the feet wet and keeping them cold is pretty sure to congest and inflame the mucous membrane of the throat

and nose, producing what is commonly called cold in the head. The skin, on account of the large amount of blood it contains and its large surface for radiation and evaporation, is the chief organ by which the heat of the body is regulated. Possibly seventy or eighty per cent of all the heat lost is radiated through the skin. The surfaces of the body being suddenly exposed to cold causes a contraction of the smaller blood vessels in the skin, driving a large amount of blood to the mucous surfaces on the inside. The skin when exposed to cold becomes pale, cold, and dry, leaving the internal excretory organs an increased amount of work to perform.

It is said that the workmen of Sir F. Chantry<sup>12</sup> were accustomed to enter a furnace in which his molds were dried, where the thermometer stood at three hundred and fifty Fahrenheit—far above the boiling point of water. The dryness of the air, increasing the evaporations from the skin, will alone account for this toleration, because, when the air is moist and hot, evaporation from the body is prevented, as in vapor baths, where some have almost suffocated at a temperature of one hundred and twelve Fahrenheit.

In a dry, hot air there is great evaporation from the skin; in a moist and hot one there is little. As regards health, there is little choice between a moist air with a low temperature and dry air with a high temperature. It has been found that moist and high air is beneficial and moist and warm is congenial. It is not a warm nor a cold climate, not a high nor a low altitude, neither a dry nor a moist air that is necessary to show a beneficial influence over disease, but an atmosphere which is mechanically and chemically pure.

Meteorological conditions affecting the health of man are better understood to-day than ever before. Less than a century ago nearly all diseases were accounted for by those conditions, but to-day by the use of the microscope and the progress of bacteriology we find a specific organism entering into the etiology<sup>13</sup> of most infectious maladies.

## THE BIGLOW PAPERS.

BY PROFESSOR J. H. GILMORE, PH.D.

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EIGHTEEN hundred and forty-eight was a prolific year with James Russell Lowell—or, rather, a year in which he gathered up and gave to the public the results of ten years of graduate life. In 1848 he published his third volume of poems (including the matchless "Present Crisis," which was written in '45); his charming "Sir Launfal"; his witty and trenchant "Fable for Critics"; and the First Series of the "Biglow Papers."

This last volume consisted of a series of shrewd and immensely popular political satires which Mr. Lowell began to publish anonymously in the *Boston Courier*, in June, 1846, and completed, two years later, in the *Anti-Slavery Standard*. These papers criticised the events that grew out of the annexation of Texas from the standpoint of a New England abolitionist, and were published anonymously, as Mr. Lowell himself tells us in his "Letters," because he wished slavery to think it had as many enemies as possible.

Fourteen years later, during the War of the Rebellion, the Second Series of the "Biglow Papers," completing the work as we now have it, was given to the public in successive issues of the *Atlantic Monthly*.

This volume has a threefold claim on our attention. It vindicates Mr. Lowell's claim to be regarded as one of the first and best of American humorists. It affords us a capital illustration of the Yankee dialect, which, as railways and newspapers and summer boarders penetrate every nook in the New England States, is rapidly becoming extinct. It helps us, if intelligently read, to understand the beginning and the end of that terrible struggle with slavery which has happily resulted in unifying and consolidating the energies of our great republic.

Upon the humorous aspect of the "Biglow Papers" it is hardly necessary to dwell in

the way of analysis or criticism. If the most casual reader does not appreciate this characteristic of Mr. Lowell's dialect poems no amount of explanation or suggestion could bring their shrewd hits down to the level of his comprehension. Attention may, however, be called to the fact that Lowell's humor as evinced in Hosea Biglow's sprightly poems or Parson Wilbur's laboriously learned introductions is always wholesome and never purposeless. Its prime object was not amusement, but the correction of social abuses and the abatement of political wrongs. Mr. Lowell had learned that "there is no *apage Sathanas*!" so potent as ridicule. But it is a kind of weapon that must have a button of good nature on the point of it." And so he set the entire North to laughing at the absurdity of lines of conduct which he might vainly have denounced as flagitious.

In undertaking this patriotic task (for never was poet inspired with purer and more unselfish patriotism) Mr. Lowell not unnaturally availed himself of the Yankee dialect; for it was the thoughts and feelings of the humble descendants of the Puritans to which he gave expression in his political satires. Their homely dialect was, in its simplicity and directness—its propensity to "call a spade a spade," rather than an oblong agricultural implement—admirably adapted to his purpose. As he himself says,

"For puttin' in a downright lick  
"Twixt Humbug's eyes, ther' 's few can metch it,  
An' then it helves my thoughts ez slick  
Ez stret-grained hickory does a hetchet."

This language was his own vernacular. He tells us:

"To me the dialect was native, was spoken all about me when a boy, at a time when an Irish day laborer was as rare as an American one is now. Since then I have made a study of it so far as opportunity allowed. But when I write in it, it is as in a mother tongue, and I am carried back far beyond

any studies of it to long ago mornings in my father's hayfields, and to the talk of Sam and Job over their jug of blackstrap, under the shadow of the ash tree which still dapples the grass whence they have been gone so long."

The writer recalls a pleasant evening spent at the residence of the late President Anderson of the University of Rochester, to which Dr. Kendrick and himself had been invited to meet Mr. Lowell. We were all from New England, and, the conversation not unnaturally turning to the Yankee dialect, Mr. Lowell assured us that he had introduced no word or phrase in the "Biglow Papers" and indicated no pronunciation which had not been authenticated by his own observation and confirmed by the experience of others. Surprise was expressed by President Anderson that one characteristic Yankee word did not occur in the "Biglow Papers." Mr. Lowell had never heard that word, and noted in his memorandum book that one of us was familiar with it, at a certain date, in the eastern part of Maine, another in northern Vermont, another in central New Hampshire. The word was "jag," meaning a small load of anything. The word is common enough now—in certain circles—and the writer has sometimes fancied that that evening's conversation may have helped to restore it to current use.

Because Mr. Lowell took such pains to make the dialect of Hosea Biglow and Bird-ofredum Sawin absolutely authentic, his "Biglow Papers" are sure of immortality on purely linguistic grounds. They faithfully represent a mode of speech which is too often outrageously caricatured. And their value in this direction is enhanced by the introduction to the Second Series, in which Mr. Lowell gives us a scholarly discussion of the English language in America, and the characteristics of American humor.

Because these poems were written in dialect, they at once attracted attention in England, and were accepted as a first installment of that distinctively American literature for which our kinsmen across the sea had been clamoring.

To place the "Biglow Papers" in their relation to American history let us notice first of all Mr. Lowell's own statement of

their purpose and plan. In the preface to the revised edition of the "Biglow Papers" he says:

"Thinking the Mexican War, as I think it still, a national crime committed in behalf of slavery, our common sin, and wishing to put the feeling of those who thought as I did in a way that would tell, I imagined to myself such an up-country man as I had often seen at antislavery gatherings, capable of district-school English, but always instinctively falling back into the natural stronghold of his homely dialect when heated to the point of self-forgetfulness. When I began to carry out my conception and to write in my assumed character, I found myself in a strait between two perils. On the one hand I was in danger of being carried beyond the limit of my own opinions, or at least of that temper with which every man should speak his mind in print, and on the other I feared the risk of seeming to vulgarize a deep and sacred conviction. I needed on occasion to rise above the level of mere patois,<sup>a</sup> and for this purpose conceived the Reverend Mr. Wilbur, who should express the more cautious element of the New England character and its pedantry, as Mr. Biglow should serve for its homely common sense vivified and heated by conscience. The parson was to be the complement rather than the antithesis of his parishoner, and I felt or fancied a certain humorous element in the real identity of the two under a seeming incongruity. Mr. Wilbur's fondness for scraps of Latin, though drawn from the life, I adopted deliberately to heighten the contrast. Finding soon after that I needed some one as a mouthpiece of the mere drollery—for I conceive that true humor is never divorced from moral conviction—I invented Mr. Sawin for the clown of my little puppet show. I meant to embody in him that half-conscious immorality which I had noticed as the recoil in gross natures from a puritanism that still strove to keep in its creed the intense savor which had long gone out of its faith and life. In the three I thought I should find room enough to express, as it was my plan to do, the popular feeling and opinion of the time."

Manifestly, in order to understand the First Series of the "Biglow Papers" one must know more than the average American citizen at once remembers about the annexation of Texas and the Mexican War which resulted from it. The most essential facts were substantially as follows:

Texas became independent of Mexico, with a constitution establishing slavery, which had previously been prohibited, in 1836. This was brought about by citizens of the Southern States who had settled in Texas and helped achieve its independence, with the hope of adding to the slave terri-



tory of the United States a tract of country large enough to be cut up into eight or ten states of the ordinary size, thus perpetuating the hold of the pro-slavery party on the United States Senate. The independence of Texas was recognized by President Jackson in 1837. John Tyler, who by the death of General Harrison had become president of the United States, entered into secret negotiations for the annexation of Texas, and, in April, 1844, submitted to the Senate of the United States a treaty which he had negotiated and which provided for annexation. This treaty the Senate refused to confirm.

The presidential election of that year turned largely, however, on the question of annexation, and as James K. Polk—who represented the idea of territorial aggrandizement and pro-slavery extension—was elected, a joint resolution favoring annexation was passed by Congress and signed by President Tyler just before he sank into merited oblivion, March 3, 1845.

Texas claimed the Rio Grande as her southern boundary line, while Mexico insisted on a line considerably farther north. As soon as Texas had accepted the proposition to enter the Union, President Polk ordered General Zachary Taylor to cross the Nueces<sup>3</sup> River and encamp, with a body of United States soldiers, on this disputed territory. This was done in the early summer of 1845. In December of that year Texas was admitted to the Union. Early in 1846, Polk, without consulting Congress, though it was then in session, ordered General Taylor to advance to the Rio Grande. This speedily resulted in a collision between the Mexican troops under General Arista and those of the United States, and led to the battles of Palo Alto<sup>4</sup> and Resaca de la Palma,<sup>5</sup> in which Taylor was victorious. Before the news of these victories had reached Washington the president had sent a message to Congress announcing that "war existed by the act of Mexico." War was accordingly declared by Congress and the president called for fifty thousand volunteers to aid in "extending the area of freedom"—which was one of the catchwords of the day.

The war was very unpopular throughout

the New England States, where through the influence of Garrison and others a strong antislavery sentiment was developing which had resulted in the nomination of a Liberty party candidate for the presidency in 1844. Massachusetts, however, responded to the president's call for volunteers by raising a regiment of infantry—of which Caleb Cushing was colonel and Isaac H. Wright lieutenant colonel, while Birdofredum Sawin was one of its most illustrious privates.

The First Series of the "Biglow Papers" opens with a poem expressive of Hosea Biglow's sturdy contempt for the blandishments of the sergeant who is recruiting for this regiment, and is immediately followed by a letter from Birdofredum Sawin giving a humorous account of the disenchantment induced by actual campaigning amid the chaparral<sup>6</sup> and beneath the burning sun of Mexico. The faded and travel-stained journal of a relative who was a private in Birdofredum's regiment attests the substantial truthfulness of Mr. Lowell's imaginative description—extending even to the complaint:

"Caleb hain't no monopoly to court the senoreetas."

The most popular poem in the First Series is "What Mr. Robinson Thinks."

"But John P. Robinson—he

Sez they didn't know everythin' down in Judee" was in every one's mouth. It needs, however, a pretty accurate acquaintance with the political history of Massachusetts thoroughly to understand the poem. The notes appended to the revised edition of the "Biglow Papers" afford some help in that direction; but it is much to be regretted that those notes did not emanate from the richly stored and keenly reminiscent brain of Mr. Lowell himself. The "Biglow Papers" fairly bristle with references and allusions which require explanation; but, even if they are not always understood, one can glean from the poems and from Parson Wilbur's comments on them some conception of the sturdy contempt with which the clear intellect and moral sensibility of New England regarded the outrageous assault, in the interests of slavery, on the integrity of a sister republic.



In making a transition from the First to the Second Series of the "Biglow Papers" the intelligent reader must be struck with a change in Mr. Lowell's attitude with reference to two important points—and the change is all the more striking that Lowell himself seems to be unconscious of it. In the First Series he expresses the idea—by no means uncommon among the New England abolitionists—that the annexation of Texas would be a sufficient ground for the secession of those states which were opposed to the aggressive policy of their slave-holding sisters.

"Ef I'd my way, I hed ruther  
We should go to work an' part;  
They take one way we take t' other—  
Guess it wouldn't break my heart.  
Man hed ough' to put asunder  
Them thet God hes noways jined,  
An' I shouldn't gretly wonder  
Ef there's thousands o' my mind."

Throughout the First Series, too, the idea is dominant that war is a great and terrible evil, for which no possible justification can be offered. He says:

"Ez for war, I call it murder—  
There you hev it plain an' flat;  
I don't want to go no furdur  
Than my Testymet fer that;  
God hez sed so plump an' fairly,  
It's ez long ez it is broad,  
An' you've gut to git up airly  
Ef you want to take in God."

In the Second Series, written during our great Civil War, secession must be put down at any cost of blood and treasure; and Mr. Lowell's principal objection to the conduct of the war is that it is not more thorough and unrelenting. What the crisis demands, to his mind,

"Is pison-mad, pig-headed fightin'."

The Second Series of the Biglow Papers did not take like the First Series. Mr. Lowell himself was conscious of a "sort of fallin' off in spots." In later years, however, he insisted that, although there was some loss in dash and spontaneity, the Second Series contained better matter than the First. In this opinion he was probably correct. Indeed few commentaries on the incidents and characters in our national history from 1861 to 1866 are more suggestive

or more instructive. They do not always embody Mr. Lowell's final conclusions, however. For instance, Abraham Lincoln as Lowell "sized him up" in the "Biglow Papers" is by no means the Abraham Lincoln of the "Commemoration Ode." Hosea Biglow tells us:

"Jeff don't stand dilly-dallyin' afore he takes a fort  
(With no one in) to git the leave o' the nex' Soopreme Court,  
Nor don't wait forty-seven weeks o' jawin' an' expoundin'

To prove a nigger hez a right to save him ef he's drownin';

Whereas old Abe 'ud sink afore he'd let a darkie boost him,

Ef Taney shouldn't come along an' hedn't interdooced him."

Again he bids us imagine what Jackson would have done had he been in Lincoln's place, and deploras

"This 'ere histin', creak, creak, creak,  
Yor cappen's heart up with a derrick;  
This tryin' to coax a lightnin' streak  
Out of a half-discouraged hayrick."

Mr. Lowell, like many other original abolitionists, was impatient of Abraham Lincoln's wise delay in freeing and arming the slaves of the South; but it is by no means impossible that such outspoken expressions of impatience prepared the way for the acceptance of the Emancipation Proclamation when at last it came.

The reason why the Second Series of the "Biglow Papers" was not so popular as the First is suggested by Mr. Lowell himself when he says,

"Ef I a song or two could make,  
Like rockets druv by their own burnin',  
All leap an' light, to leave a wake  
Men's hearts and faces skyward turnin'!—  
But, it strikes me, 't ain't jest the time  
Fer stringin' words with settisfaction:  
Wut's wanted now's the silent rhyme  
'Twixt upright will an' downright action."

In "Jonathan to John" he came nearest to such a poem as he here describes; and this was the most popular poem of the Second Series—as Lowell himself expected that it would be.

The prolix tediousness of Parson Wilbur was utterly at variance with the strenuous activity of such a terrible crisis in the national history; and we are grateful when

Mr. Lowell forgets that he is masquerading beneath the garb of the worthy dominie, and with forthright directness brings a personal indictment against England\* which might well have been remembered against him when he was minister at the Court of St. James.

One of the shrewdest of the papers in the Second Series is that on reconstruction, "Hosea Biglow's Speech in March Meeting," with which the series closes; one of the most suggestive is the dialogue between Concord Bridge and Bunker Hill Monument—which typify the fervid and somewhat unreasonable patriotism of the period when the surrender of Mason and Slidell convulsed the North, and its calmer and less passionate, almost despondent, acquiescence in the inevitable.

But the brightest and best of all these poems is clearly "Suthin' in the Pastoral Line." There is very little that may be regarded as true poetry in the "Biglow Papers"; but in his description of an American spring in this paper Lowell (who elsewhere excels as a pastoral poet) is at his very best. And at the close of the paper, where his ancestor appears upon the scene, Lowell evinces a dramatic faculty and spiritual fervor

which remind us of "The Present Crisis."

"Hosee," sez he, "I think you 're goin' to fail;  
The rattlesnake ain't dangerous in the tail;  
This 'ere rebellion's nothin' but the rattle,—  
You'll stomp on thet an' think you've won the bettle;  
It 's slavery thet 's the fangs an' thinkin' head,  
An' ef you want selvation, cresh it dead,—  
An' cresh it suddin, or you 'll larn by waitin'  
Thet Chance wun't stop to listen to debatin'!"

Attention has just been called to the fact that there is little true poetry in the "Biglow Papers." It may further be remarked that there is little pathos—though there is abundant room for it. Toward the close of the Second Series, however, Lowell refers with touching effectiveness to dear ones of his own blood that had fallen on southern battlefields,

"Whose comin' step ther' 's ears thet won't  
No, not life-long, leave off awaitin'."

And with this sad, sweet note, these poems, which Lowell especially loved and which have done as much as anything he ever wrote to extend and perpetuate his reputation,—these poems which satirize everything that is mean and hateful at the North as well as at the South, at home as well as abroad, but never hold up to ridicule anything that is pure and true and good—draw to a fitting close.

## POLITICAL PARTY MACHINERY IN THE UNITED STATES.

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**A** POLITICAL party is an organization of those voting citizens who agree in desiring to see the business of government carried on in a particular way. In order to carry out effectively the purposes of its existence it is necessary that a party get control of the governmental political offices and keep control of them as long as possible, for it is only through the offices that the business of the state is managed. It must not be forgotten that the political offices are few. The greatest part of the governmental offices are purely administrative and have nothing

\* "Biglow Papers," Second Series, No. 11.

to do with carrying out a party policy. Office seeking, then, though often spoken of with scorn, must be the work of the most patriotic citizens, if they desire that their political efforts be successful. They must seek offices, possibly for themselves; but at any rate they must seek them for some of the men whom they consider especially adapted to carry out the political principles of their party. In order, now, to do well this work of securing the offices, parties must be thoroughly organized, and this party organization is called the party machine. Whether the machine shall be, on the whole, good for the country or an evil, depends

mostly upon the purity of the purposes of the men who manage it.

The work of a political party may be summed up under three heads: (1) the selection of candidates for office; (2) the election of the candidates nominated; (3) control of the officers elected, so that they shall carry out in their administration the principles of the party.

Nominations of candidates for office usually are made in towns or in the wards in cities by direct ballot in a public meeting or caucus of all voters of the party resident in the district who wish to attend. In the case, however, of all higher officers, whether county, legislative, state, congressional, or presidential, nominations are made in conventions of delegates selected by different local caucuses. The system is purely democratic in theory, each voter having an equal voice in the selection of any candidate, even for the presidency of the United States. Of course at times individuals announce themselves as candidates for local offices, either independently or subject to the approval of the party conventions, and they personally urge their claims for an office upon the voters. At times, also, it has been customary for a few prominent citizens to select candidates for office and to place their names before the people. In earlier times members of Congress belonging to the leading parties suggested the names of presidential candidates; or a candidate was put in nomination for that office by action of some state legislature. At present, however, candidates for all prominent offices, if they are to be considered as regular candidates, must be selected by conventions especially called for the purpose of making these nominations.

The exact methods of selecting delegates, especially for the local conventions, differ somewhat in different parts of the country and at different times. Each county is, or may be, independent in its method of selecting the delegates; but the principles are the same throughout the country. In order to save trouble and expense in elections it is customary for state and local elections to be held at the same time as are

the national elections, so that the voter instead of casting a single ballot for one candidate may vote for fifteen or twenty or more candidates for different offices at one time. Likewise in the nomination of candidates for these various offices it is usually convenient and economical for the same convention to nominate candidates for several offices.

Some weeks before election in each town in the rural districts and in each voting precinct or ward in the cities the voters of each party come together in a primary meeting (caucus) in accordance with the call issued by the central committee of the party, and there, as has been said, by a majority vote nominate their candidates for the local offices. At this same meeting, usually, if county officers are to be nominated or if a county convention is to be held to select delegates to a district or state convention, each town or ward in addition to nominating candidates for its own offices selects delegates to attend the county convention. When, now, this county convention, composed of delegates from the various towns and wards in the county, meets, it nominates candidates for the county offices and also selects delegates to attend the state convention which will nominate candidates for state offices or to attend a district convention which will nominate candidates for membership in Congress, for the office of state senator, or for that of judge, as the case may be. Or it may be that this county convention will nominate delegates only for some one more important convention and at another meeting will nominate candidates for the local offices. For example, a county convention called lately in Indiana selected delegates to the state convention, the congressional convention, the judicial convention, and to a special congressional convention for electing a member of the state central committee, besides choosing the members of the new county central committee. In this case the Republicans met in a mass convention, every Republican in the county being entitled to vote in the convention (though those present from each town acted by themselves in proposing committeemen), instead of the convention being made

up of delegates from the local precincts as is more usually the case.

For the nomination of president, local conventions send delegates to a specially called convention in each congressional district, and these conventions elect usually two delegates and two alternates to seats in the national convention. Special state conventions are also called ordinarily to nominate four delegates at large to represent the whole state in the national convention. Sometimes, however, one state convention names all the delegates, the representatives present from each congressional district selecting the two delegates and two alternates to represent them in the national convention. As was said, then, though the methods may vary, as we have seen, every voter of each party may, in theory, have a voice in all nominations, either directly, as in the selection of local candidates, or indirectly, through delegates, as in the selection of county or state or national candidates.

In the local caucuses in rural districts, where the voters are well known, every voter belonging to the party concerned may take part. In the large cities, however, where the voting population is so numerous that the voters are not well known to each other, it is thought necessary to keep lists of the voters of the party, and no one is permitted to vote in the caucus unless his name appears upon such a list. This list is prepared generally by the managing committee of the ward, and this committee is likely to keep upon it the names of the men whose votes they can most readily control, so that the men entitled to vote are often by no means fairly representative of the voters in the district. The party organization in New York City, for example, has at times been so strict in the selection of members that an applicant for membership in the party organization had to have his name posted, to be passed upon by the committee upon admission, and to be elected by a majority of those present at a monthly meeting. Still further, if so chosen he had to pledge himself to approve all nominations made by the committee, and to bind himself not to join any political organization which did not recognize the

authority of this primary association. Such rigid rules as these have sometimes prevented more than ten per cent of the party from assisting in the nomination of candidates for office. Frequently, in practice, even in districts where the rules are much freer, an even smaller per cent of the voters nominate the candidates.

The trickery and fraud employed at times in making nominations are most frequently found in the primary; and in such work the machine men have the advantage. As members of the local committee, they call the caucus, and their chairman is expected to call the meeting to order and begin the business. At times, to gain an advantage, they notify their friends to be early, and promptly at the moment announced the meeting is called to order and the most important business is done before other voters, possibly hostile, arrive. Even watches have been put ahead to give the advantage. Again the place of meeting is at times not clearly stated in the call, but friends of the machine are given private information. Sometimes one faction comes early, fills the hall, and practically by force keeps out its opponents till the work is done. It is reported that in Philadelphia not long since a policeman in league with the machine was stationed at the door and refused to let many of the opposing faction in.

The machine proper is made up rather of the prominent committees whose duty it is to conduct the work of the elections, to keep the organization of the party in order and at work, to make provisions for succeeding nominating conventions, and to watch carefully the actions of their party members who hold the offices. Usually each convention before its adjournment selects the members of a committee, made up, in the case of a county committee, of one or more members from each voting precinct, in the case of the state committee, usually of one member from each congressional district, and in the case of the national committee of one member from each state represented. These committees, then, are the machine. Generally they organize themselves for work by the appointment of a chairman, a vice chairman,



a treasurer, a secretary, and an executive committee. Of course other officers are selected if it seems desirable. While the officers are generally taken from the members of the committee itself, it is not an uncommon custom for the treasurer or secretary to be taken from outside the membership of the committee. Usually the members of the executive committee, upon whom the main work falls, are, in the case of the county committee, men living in or near the most important place in the county, in order that at times of election they may be quickly summoned to consult upon any matter of importance. So, likewise, in the case of the state or national committees, the men in charge of the work are to be found in immediate touch with the central office directing and controlling the work of a campaign. The members of the executive committee not infrequently ignore to a great extent the other members of the committee that are selected at the convention, and do their work in the various localities through men of their own appointment who are more closely in sympathy with their views.

The purpose of the committees is primarily success in the elections; and if success is won the methods followed are usually not closely investigated nor are the accounts audited. Especially in the case of the state and national committees the wish of the leading candidate or candidates has usually much to do with the selection of the officers of the committee, and the committees are frequently in consultation with the candidates as to the methods of their work.

Besides the work of organizing a party for the campaign and of carrying on the election, these committees issue calls for the succeeding nominating conventions, select the time and place for holding the convention, fix upon the number of delegates to be chosen, and in all ways determine the general nature of the work to be done. In consequence of this, as well as by packing the primaries, the party machine often is enabled to control, in good part, the work of the nominating convention itself, both as regards the selection of candidates for office and as regards the choice of the succeeding

machine committee; so that this party machine is largely a self-perpetuating machine, the committees calling conventions, the convention appointing the same men as committees, thus making one harmonious working organization.

The efficiency of the party machine can be seen best, perhaps, in its management of the important elections. In the case of a presidential election the national committee is in immediate correspondence or in personal touch with all of the state committees; the state committees in turn have reports regularly from the county committees. The congressional committees, while looking especially after the election of congressmen, take also an interest in the success of the general ticket, and give all the information that they can to the state or national committees; and the county committee, having its representatives in every voting district, is enabled to reach at once any individual voter. It is probably not too much to say that if the information were desired it would be possible for the chairman of the national committee to learn the details of the political belief or record of practically any voter in the United States by sending word through the proper channels to some neighbor who is connected with the local political committee.

Before the election, arrangements are made by each local committee to canvass thoroughly the voters in the locality; to make a list containing all their names, with the parties to which they belong; to mention those whose votes are doubtful and who, in consequence, are open to persuasion of any kind; and to give any other information regarding the individual voters that will be of use in the coming election. For use at the time of election other books are ordinarily prepared containing the name of every voter who needs to be looked after by the committee on or before election day. It may be necessary to send a carriage to bring the voter to the polls; it may be necessary to get his employer to bring his influence to bear to secure the vote; it may be wise to get his next friend to change his opinions by argument; it may be sufficient to see that on election day he is offered a certain sum



of money. The purpose of the committee is to secure as many votes as possible for the party that it represents; and if the organization is as complete as it ought to be each voter will be looked after in the way that will bring about the desired result by the person within the party who is best fitted to do the work. It is not too much to say that in important elections in doubtful states every voter is individually looked after by the local committees and, through their records, by the state and national committees. And, on the other hand, the preliminary work done makes it possible for the members of the national and state committees to know just how much assistance in the way of advice or literature or workers or money needs to be given by these central committees to the local committees to guide and assist their action.

When candidates have been nominated and elected through the efforts of a committee, they, of course, are likely to feel under personal obligations to their party and to the members of the committee individually, and, in many cases they are therefore glad to exert their influence in office to further the interests of the party. As good party men they of course believe that the welfare of the country depends upon the carrying out of their party principles, and therefore upon the continuance of their party in power. It is natural, then, that the members of the committees should have much influence over the candidates both as regards the votes that they may cast as members of the Legislature or of Congress, and in the appointments that they may make to office, if they are in prominent executive positions. The man who goes into office as a machine candidate must expect to feel the influence of the machine throughout his term of office.

Much has been said about the evils of the political party machinery in the United States, but they may perhaps all be summed up under two heads. In the first place, men thus put in charge of the party machinery are likely to be so carried away by their zeal and desire for success that they will stoop to almost any means, however

corrupt, for the sake of securing success. It may well be that they are personally honest, sincerely unselfish as regards any personal aggrandizement, even thoroughly patriotic in feeling as regards the country's welfare; but, blinded by their zeal for party success and stimulated by the spirit of conflict, they will not hesitate to use any means of corruption to reach the desired goal. There can be no question that they often excuse their acts to their own consciences by the fact that their opponents are using similar tactics and that they must of necessity employ them to win, and by the sincere belief that the success of the opposite party would be a greater evil to the country than are the corrupt means employed.

Out of all this, however, naturally grows the second evil—the wish to use the party power for the securing of personal advancement. It is but natural that when one finds himself in control of the party organization which has at its disposal perhaps thousands of offices and hundreds of thousands of dollars one should use this power to secure for one's self or for one's friends the benefits within reach. If a party chief has led his party to success, he may feel and his followers will also feel that the party owes him the highest office within its reach; and, of course, it is often true that skill in managing the party is evidence of executive ability required to perform well the duties of a public office. Only fitness for the place, however, justifies giving him the office. If a man is patriotic in work for his party he will realize that his party's success is a sufficient reward for his efforts, and that the only claim he can have to an office is his fitness to perform its duties. Otherwise it would be far better for his country to do without his service as a party leader.

The employment of the party machinery for selfish ends, regardless of the welfare of the country, has become so common that it is important to inquire what remedies for the evil can be found. There are of course certain checks that may be secured by proper legislation, so far as the power of the machine is concerned. Corrupt practices acts and laws securing the secret ballot will tend

to weaken the corrupt party machine. So far as its power depends upon the getting of offices, as it does now in great part, efficient civil service rules fairly well executed will tend to weaken its power. So far as the success of the machine depends upon the absolute control of the Legislature or of the government, a system of proportional representation which will give to each party representation only in proportion to the number of its members will prevent in most states absolute party dictation and will thus remove the chief temptation toward bribery and corrupt use of the party machinery. As a last resort even the adoption of the *referendum*, or the popular vote to secure the passage of the most important laws, would put a most effective check upon the success of the machine in securing the rewards that it might seek. All of these methods should be employed so far as they well can be, but we cannot expect from them complete relief.

Party organization is a necessity, and party organization by putting men into a position of power furnishes a continual temptation for them to abuse the power. The only effectual remedy consists in devel-

oping within the voters themselves the true spirit of patriotism, which keeps always in view the welfare of the country as of more consequence than the success of the party. Then an attempt at corruption on the part of the leader will result rather in his downfall than in his success. Most men, even among our party leaders, employ corruption only as a hated means. If within each party the upright voters who are willing to secure success only by fair means should also organize themselves and announce that their support could be secured for no leader who would in any case employ unfair means, it might well be that in the majority of instances our party machines would become what they ought to be, efficiently working organizations, devoted not to selfish ends but to the furtherance of the public good. The majority in every party is opposed to corruption; but it lacks the leadership of those who are clear-sighted enough to see that the interests of country are paramount to those of party, and that purity in politics is of more vital consequence than any merely economic issue on which the people naturally divide into hostile parties.

## SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

[April 5.]

WHAT then is repentance? You will perhaps tell me it is the being sorry for having done wrong. This, however, is far from enough. The apostle speaks of "a godly sorrow which worketh repentance," so that repentance must be something different from sorrow, even from a godly sorrow. It is the fruit of a godly sorrow. When there is anything about us that afflicts us and makes us grieve, we naturally wish, if possible, to be quit of it, and the more grievous our affliction the stronger is our desire to get rid of that which causes it. Accordingly, if we are stirred with a hearty and godly sorrow for having turned away from God and given ourselves up to sin, we must needs desire to forsake

our sins and to turn from them to God. This, at the very least, is necessary to make up anything that can claim to be called repentance. When the angel came to Lot in Sodom what did he tell him? to grieve over the sins of Sodom? Had Lot done no more than this he would have perished in the destruction of Sodom. The angel bade him flee out of Sodom and escape for his life; he bade him flee to the mountain lest he should be consumed. He who sincerely and heartily repents of his sins will not be content to tarry in the midst of them, nor even in the plain in their neighborhood; he will endeavor to escape to the mountain; he will strive to climb up God's hill, the holy hill of Sion. It is a very common and a very sad mistake for people to fancy that

when they are sorry for their sins, when they abuse sin and condemn it and regret that they have fallen into it, they are repenting. But it is not so. We may speak ill of a thing with our lips and yet our hearts may cleave to it all the while. So long as we continue in sin, so long at least as we do not strive to get out of it, there is no jot of true repentance in our hearts. For the repentance which is wrought by a godly sorrow is a repentance unto salvation; but a repentance which did not move us to forsake our sins would be a repentance unto destruction. We should be destroyed along with them, even as Lot would have been destroyed if he had stayed in Sodom. Hear what the prophet Isaiah says when he is exhorting the people to repentance: "Wash you; make you clean; put away the evil of your doings; cease to do evil; learn to do well" (i., 16). In like manner John the Baptist, when he preached repentance, laid the stress of his sermon on the fruits of repentance. It was not enough, he said to the Pharisees and Sadducees, to come and be baptized and to confess their sins; they were also to bring forth fruits meet for repentance. For every tree which bringeth not forth good fruit—I pray you, brethren, mark his words: he does not say, every tree which brings forth bad fruit, but every tree which does not bring forth good fruit—every barren tree, every tree that bears nothing, is to be cut down, just as much as the vine spoken of by the prophet which brought forth wild and poisonous grapes. Both are to be hewn down by the axe of justice; both are to be cast into the fire.

Indeed the very words in the original, which in our Bible are rendered by the English words *repent* and *repentance*—the very words by which the evangelists describe the preaching of the Baptist and that of our Lord himself—mean far more than is usually understood by the English words that answer to them. The original word means a change of mind, a change of heart, a change of thought and of feeling. Therefore when you read or hear any of our Savior's gracious promises of forgiveness to those who will repent you must under-

stand them as applying solely to those who have begun to lay aside their old thoughts about sin and to look at it not according to the evil customs of the world but according to the law of God. So long as a man asks, "What great harm can there be in this or that thing?" when God has forbidden it; so long as he says, "I am very sorry for what I do, but I can't help it"; so long as he comforts himself with the thought that he is no worse than other men—so long is he only deceiving himself to his ruin by applying Christ's promises of forgiveness to his own case. Christ's promises are to those whose minds are changed. Is that man's mind changed who does not see the great harm, the shame, the guilt, the danger of disobeying God? Is that man's mind changed who says he cannot help his sins when Jesus Christ came from heaven on purpose to bring him help and to enable him to live unto righteousness? As for that habit of comparing ourselves with other men, and comforting ourselves if we find that we are not worse than they, among all the deadly snares which Satan is ever setting for souls hardly any is more destructive, hardly any catches more victims and entangles them in sin and death than this very temptation by which he beguiles us into measuring ourselves among ourselves and comparing ourselves one with another instead of trying our lives and actions by the only true test, the word of God. In a word, unless we are heartily desirous to forsake sin—and to forsake it too on right grounds, not because it may hurt our welfare in this world but because it is hateful to God—unless we do our best to flee from sin, it is a mere pretence to say that we repent. There may be momentary pangs of sorrow; there may be stings of remorse; there may be a fear of punishment; but unless the remorse makes us hate sin, unless the fear makes us turn to God, unless the sorrow settles down into an earnest desire of leading pure and righteous lives in future, we are not among the number of those who have given heed to the cry calling them to repentance, and it will be no blessing to us that the kingdom of heaven is come.

[April 12.]

This brings me to consider why we are to repent. Not on account of any pleasure or satisfaction found in the work of repentance itself. I will not conceal from you that the duty of repentance is neither easy nor pleasant. The very name given to the first day of Lent shows that this was not designed to be a season for gladness. It is called, as you know, Ash Wednesday, because on that day the Christians in former ages used to sprinkle their heads and cross their foreheads with ashes, saying one to another, "Remember, O man, that thou art ashes, and unto dust thou shalt return." To cover the head with ashes was regarded of old as a mark of the deepest sorrow. Thus we read that Tamar in her grievous affliction put ashes on her head. Thus, when the wicked Haman had persuaded Ahasuerus to send forth a decree against the Jews, Mordecai rent his clothes and put on sackcloth with ashes, and in every province there was great mourning among the Jews, fasting and weeping and wailing, and many lay in sackcloth and ashes. In like manner, when Jonah preached repentance to the people of Nineveh, the king arose from his throne and laid his robe from him and covered him with sackcloth and sat in ashes. And you cannot but remember our Savior's words in which he cries, "Woe to Chorazin! and woe to Bethsaida! for if the mighty works done in them had been done in Tyre and Sidon they would have repented long ago in sackcloth and ashes." Thus has repentance ever been deemed a thing sad and painful and humiliating; and thus, when we repent, must we too, like the king of Nineveh, strip off all the pride of our nature, all that the flesh and the eye delight in, to cast ourselves on the ground and to cover ourselves with the bitter ashes of our former pleasures. Nor does our blessed Master ever speak of repentance except as a thing hard to flesh and blood. You remember his words about John the Baptist, the great preacher of repentance: "What went ye out to see? a man clothed in soft raiment? Behold they that wear soft clothing are in kings' houses." The preacher of repentance is not among those

who wear soft clothing. His dwelling is in the wilderness, and they who give heed to his preaching must also go forth into the wilderness. They must deny all that they have hitherto been accustomed to pamper and must forsake all wherewith they have hitherto pampered themselves. They must curb their tempers; they must fortify their inclinations; they must be content to fare without the comforts and indulgences to which they have been used all their lives. Pains must be taken, sacrifices must be made by all who would enter in at the strait gate. Restraints must be borne, self-denial must be practiced by all who desire to recover from the deadly disease of sin. It can hardly be necessary to remind you what a tedious work it is to recover from a severe and dangerous illness, what a long time it takes—how much care is needed to keep us from falling back and losing the little ground we have gained. In how many ways is the sick man compelled to deny himself!—for instance, in abstaining wholly from strong drinks and from certain meats which, when he was well, did him no harm, but which will not suit his present weakly state. The remedies too are often painful, the medicines distasteful. All this care and abstinence the sick man may have to practice for months, until he has regained his strength. Nor is the recovery of the soul less difficult than that of the body; on the contrary it is far more difficult, inasmuch as the malady is of far longer standing. It is far more difficult; it takes a longer time; it is still more liable to be interrupted by relapses; it requires a still more watchful self-restraint and self-denial.

[April 19.]

The likeness between the diseases of the body and those of the soul will also supply us with an answer to the question which I put just now: Why, if repentance be so painful, are we to repent? Were a man who was lying on a bed of sickness to be asked why he sent for a physician, why he did not eat and drink like other men, would he be at a loss for an answer? Would he not



say at once, "Because I wish to live, rather than to die; so I am taking the only means whereby I can hope to save my life"? Such should be the penitent sinner's answer when asked why he is taking the bitter medicine of repentance. This question is very likely to be put to him at the outset by his passions, which are not used to be checked, by his will, which grows outrageous at being curbed, by his former companions, who are vexed to see him quitting, and thereby condemning them—by every evil thing, in short, both within him and around him. When such a question is asked him he too should answer, "Because I wish to live, rather than to die, to live forever, rather than to die forever." Nothing can be stronger than our Savior's words on this point. If our right eye offend us, that is, if it tempt us to sin—as numbers are tempted to sin by the lusts of the eye—we are to pluck it out and cast it from us. If our right hand prove a temptation to us we are to cut it off. And along with this command, so hard to flesh and blood, our Lord has been graciously pleased to tell us the reason why we are to obey it: because it is better for us to enter into life halt or maimed, or with one eye, than to be cast into everlasting fire with two legs, and two hands, and two eyes.

This, my brethern, is the reason why we are to repent: because, irksome as repentance may be, it is only through the strait gate that we can enter into life. Does any man think of doubting whether recovering from sickness is a good thing? Did any man in his senses ever blame another for choosing to get well, at whatever cost and trouble, when he might have saved himself all this annoyance by letting himself be lifted out of bed into his coffin? for choosing to have a mortified leg cut off when he might have kept it on and become a corpse? Nay further: did any man in his right mind ever say, "It is true, I am very ill. Every day that I put off taking medicine I grow worse and there is less and less chance of my recovery. Notwithstanding I will delay getting well for another twelvemonth, and then I will set about it in good earnest"? If such language would be downright madness

with regard to the disorders of the body, how comes it to be less than madness when used of the disorders of the soul! How comes it that so many think these mad thoughts and speak these mad words about repentance? How comes it that so many go on year after year putting off the time of taking the only medicine which can restore us through God's help to our natural health and make us ourselves again?

For man, as he now is, is not himself. He is not what God made him. God made him to lead a holy and godly life; and such is the life to which Jesus Christ came to restore him. This, therefore, is our true nature, the nature in which man was made, the nature which Christ came to restore. Sin, however, has become a kind of second nature to us. In an ancient storybook we read of a great warrior who was persuaded through the malice of his enemy to put on a poisoned robe, and the robe stuck to his body so that it was impossible to pull it off without tearing off some of the flesh. It stuck to him as if it had been glued on, and the poison ate into his flesh and killed him. Thus is it with sin. It cannot be torn off without drawing blood from our souls; but if we let it remain on it kills us. Therefore we must tear it off, without shrinking or flinching from the pain it may cost us to do so. We must escape to the mountain—because we are fleeing from Sodom and because we cannot tarry in Sodom without being consumed by its fire.

[April 26.]

It is impossible to press this point too strongly, so I will try to enforce what I have said by another parable. On the seashore, many of you know, there are often rocks. Now suppose a man walking among these rocks and finding the stones painful to his feet thinks he shall walk more easily and pleasantly on the smooth sand below. He quits the rocks and goes down to the sands. The tide is out; the sea is calm; the waves are a long way off; there can be no danger; so he walks on. Presently the wind begins to rise. Still there can be no danger; it is only rounding that jutting cliff; there is



plenty of time, and then he will be safe. Meanwhile the sea comes on, gradually, gradually, wave after wave, like so many lines of horsemen in battle array riding one after the other. Every moment they advance a step or two, and before the man has got to the jutting cliff he sees them dashing against its feet. What is he to do? On one side of him is a steep and rugged ledge of rocks, on the other side the sea, which the wind is lashing into a storm, is rushing toward him with all its might and fury.

Would a man in such a plight think of losing another moment? Would he stop to consider whether he should hurt his hands by laying hold of the sharp stones? Would not he strain every nerve to reach a place of safety before the waves could overtake him? If his slothfulness whispered to him, "It is of no use. The ledge is very steep; you may fall back when you have got half way. Stay where you are; perhaps the wind may drop, or the waves may stop short, and so you will be safe here"—if his slothfulness prompted such thoughts as these would he listen to them? Would he not reply, "Hard as the task may be it must be tried or I am a dead man. God will not work a miracle in my behalf; he will not change the course of the tides and put a new and strange bridle on the sea to save me from the effects of my own laziness. I have still a few minutes left; let me make the most of them, and I may be safe; if they slip away I must be drowned"? This picture is not a mere piece of fancy. Many stories are told of the risks people have run by the coming in of the tide when they were straying heedlessly along the sands. Some by great efforts, aided by God's good providence, have escaped. Others have perished miserably. Now the sinner is just in the situation of the man I have been speaking of. On one side of him is

the steep ledge of repentance; on the other the fiery waves of the bottomless pit are every moment rolling on toward him. Could his eyes be opened, as the eyes of Elisha's servant were, he would see those fiery waves already beginning to surround him. Is this a situation for a man to stop in? Will any one in such a plight talk about the difficulty of repentance? Let passion cry out, "It is hard to deny one's self"; faith must make answer, "It is harder to dwell amid endless burnings."

There is one great difference, however, between the man walking on the seashore and the sinner loitering on the edge of the fiery lake. The former will try to climb the rocks, because they offer him a chance of escaping, but if we try to climb the ledge of repentance our escape is certain, provided we begin in time. Jesus Christ himself is standing at the top of that ledge, crying to us, "Why will ye perish?" He stretches out his hands to us to help us up; we have only to lay hold on them and we are safe.

But then we must begin in time. If a man sets about climbing a steep cliff when he is young and active and has the free use of his limbs he has a great advantage; the old and the crippled are pretty sure to fail. So it is with repentance. The young can mount the hill, if they set about it in good earnest, with much less toil. But they who are old in sin, they whose souls have become stiff through years of wickedness, and have grown double, so to say, by always looking earthward—how can they make the efforts which are needed for such a task? Of all hopeless miracles the miracle of a deathbed repentance seems to me one of the most hopeless. Therefore repent in time; that is, repent now. For now is the accepted time; now is the day of salvation.—*Augustus W. Hare.*

(End of Required Reading for April.)

## A ROMANCE OF THE STARS.

BY MARY PROCTOR.

### CHATER V.

WHEN the professor had made these concluding remarks the class was dismissed, as it was the hour for recess. As they left the schoolroom Marion Cleveland and two or three of the seniors approached the professor's desk and thanked him for the delightful lesson they had had.

"It was an experiment," said the professor kindly, "and if it will make the astronomy lessons more pleasing I shall be only too glad to continue it."

"How can we write abstracts of all you have been saying?" asked Caroline Sturgis. "You have said so much, and I am bewildered by the great distances you have told us about."

"You can refer to the books in the library," replied the professor, "and write as much as you can remember. I do not expect long essays. I prefer that they should be intelligent, showing that you understand me. You are welcome to ask me as many questions as you please during the lessons. I shall answer them to the best of my ability, and when I am uncertain there is the reference library for me as well as for you."

"But I thought you knew everything about astronomy," remarked Caroline Sturgis ingenuously.

"Everything!" said the professor, smiling. "If I lived a century, and studied night and day without ceasing, I would still consider myself but a student in this science. There is so much to learn, so much that is beyond us, and we know so very little. But as Tennyson says:

"Let knowledge grow from more to more,  
Let more of reverence in us dwell,  
That mind and soul according well  
May make one music as before—but vaster."

As Marion and Caroline rejoined the other members of the class in the assembly hall they discussed the morning's lesson with great animation. As might be ex-

pected, a few did not appreciate the experiment, simply because it was all so new to them. One girl expressed the opinion that the thought of the stars rushing through space was positively alarming.

"Who knows," she said, "whether there may not be collisions out there among the stars? And what would happen if one should crash into our sun?"

"It would make us very uncomfortably warm, I should imagine," said Lydia Ferris, as she gazed dreamily out of the window, "but I do not think that quiet-looking sun which we see over there is going to let us run any such risk."

"There is no knowing," said Caroline. "And besides I have heard of stars becoming very bright suddenly and then flickering out again—I think they call them suns in flames—and why should not this happen to our sun some day?"

"Supposing it did, would it hurt us?" asked Lydia.

"Hurt us?" said Caroline, "perhaps it would. Let us ask Marion, because she knows more about it than any of us. Marion, come here, there's a dear girl, and settle the momentous question. You have heard about these stars that suddenly brighten up and then flicker out again. Well, supposing our sun were to flame up that way, what would happen to us?"

"All life would be destroyed upon the earth," replied Marion, "and no students of science would remain after the catastrophe to tell its effects. However, such an event is extremely unlikely."

"Let us ask Professor Douglas at the next lesson," said Lydia. "And besides that, there are ever so many questions I wanted to ask him this morning. Supposing we send him a question from each one of us before each lesson, so that he will know what we want him to talk about. There are so many things that I would like to know."

You cannot find answers to them in text-books, and you do not know where to find them in reference books, and yet they seem so simple. Now I want to know why the stars are colored."

"And I want to know why they twinkle," said Caroline.

"Everybody knows that," said Lydia, laughing; "it is something about the atmosphere."

"That is very definite, I must say," said Caroline, turning the laugh against Lydia.

"But I am in earnest about this."

"What, about the twinkling stars?" queried Marion slyly.

"No, indeed," said Caroline, "but about asking questions, or rather sending them in to Professor Douglas."

"I'll tell you something which will be better. Send in the questions," said Marion, "but only one at a time. As there are only ten of us in the class we can each have a chance within three weeks. Otherwise we might all choose a different topic, and it would be rather confusing."

"What do you mean?" asked Caroline. "They would all be about astronomy."

"That is so," replied Marion, "but supposing you asked a question about the moon, and I asked something about Saturn, and Lydia asked about double stars, and some one else asked about comets; by the time all the ten questions had been answered the subjects would be so varied that it would be like looking through a kaleidoscope. Let us first ask the professor if we may try this plan, and then take our turn by the order of our names alphabetically. Does this meet with your approval?"

"I second the motion," said Caroline.

"All those in favor of the motion say aye."

"Aye," answered a chorus of voices.

Just then the dinner bell was heard—an always welcome sound to students—and the girls disbanded and hurried to the dining room. Marion and Caroline were the last to go, and as they passed through the assembly room they discussed the morning's program. They had both enjoyed it exceedingly and had appreciated the effort made by Professor Douglas to make this study more entertain-

ing than it had hitherto been. His earnestness of manner appealed to them strongly, and they were determined that they would do all in their power to further his schemes.

## CHAPTER VI.

THAT evening the professor, while making his arrangements for the next lesson, congratulated himself upon the success of his experiment. The pupils had shown an unusual interest in the lesson and he felt encouraged to carry out the plans he had made. He arranged a program for the next lesson, and after jotting down a few notes in his notebook he went to the observatory where he prepared his telescope for a view of the heavens. It was a glorious starlit night, when

"All the stars  
Shine, and the immeasurable heavens  
Break open to their highest,"

and the contemplation of the celestial vault raises in the least thoughtful mind vague suggestions of infinity, eternity, and omnipotence. Looking into the starlit depths of heaven, he knew that the objects presented to him shone from distances so great that some of them are inconceivable. He knew that what he saw was not that which *is*, but that which *was* ages ago, as respects faintly shining stars visible only by momentary twinklings revealing them to the sight.

"How distant some of those nocturnal suns!  
So distant (says the sage) 'twere not absurd  
To doubt if beams set out at nature's birth  
Are yet arrived at this so foreign world,  
Tho' nothing half so rapid as their flight."

In looking upon the myriads of stars which are spread through space the professor was inspired with a strong desire to penetrate the mystery of the star-strewn depths. What thought is more stupendous than that the millions of suns which people space should all be in exceedingly swift motion? Each sun of our universe of suns is indeed in swift motion, as in our own. Each has its family of dependent worlds, hurrying along with it at an amazing velocity. Each star domain is continually changing, not in boundary alone, but altogether. It is astir with energy, instinct with the most amazing

vitality, and yet to our feeble senses constant. Only in the eyes of Him to whom a thousand years are as one day and one day as a thousand years is the life of the universe a reality. He alone recognizes harmony and perfection in the system of star motions.

As these thoughts passed through the mind of the professor he directed his attention to the eastern horizon. It was the month of November, and the stars of Orion were rising. They were ushered in by the silvery Pleiades, and certain lines of "Locksley Hall" came to the young man's mind:

"Many a night I saw the Pleiads rising through  
the mellow shade,  
Glitter like a swarm of fireflies tangled in a silver  
braid."

Above the head and shoulders of the giant towered Taurus the Bull, with his fiery eye Aldebaran, and above this again was the constellation Perseus, with the variable star Algol, known to the Arabs as the Blinking Demon. Toward the southeast could be seen the twin stars Castor and Pollux, the former being the finest double star in the northern heavens. The professor gave a passing glance to Pollux, which is a fine triple star, the components being orange, gray, and lilac.

In the telescope the star Betelgeuse, flashing with a rich topaz hue, differed in brilliancy from Bellatrix, the star on the right shoulder, while the bright orange star Rigel, in the foot of Orion, showed in strong contrast to its little blue comrade.

The professor now turned his attention to the northernmost of the set of three stars in the head of Orion. This is a triple star, the components being pale white and violet, with a faint companion. The three stars in the belt also came in for their share of attention. They are distinguished by the names Delta, Epsilon, and Zeta, Epsilon being a white star with a pale blue companion, Delta a white star with a pale violet companion, and Zeta being threefold, bright yellow, purple, and gray. Just below the belt the professor observed a remarkable multiple star, a combination of ten stars, another multiple in Orion's scabbard, consisting of white, lilac, garnet, red, and blue

components, and a triple star, of white, pale blue, and grape red. In fact, binary, or double stars, revolving about each other are not uncommon there. The first edition of Tennyson's "Palace of Art" contained these beautiful lines in description of the soul of a poetic genius:

"And as with optic glasses her keen eyes  
Pierced through the mystic dome,  
Regions of lucid matter taking forms,  
Brushes of fiery, hazy gleams,  
Clusters and beds of worlds and bee-like swarms  
Of suns and starry streams,  
She saw . . . . .  
That marvelous round of milky light  
Below Orion, and those double stars  
Whereof the one more bright  
Is circled by the other."

As the professor gazed upon this marvelous light-cloud, the nebula of Orion, he wondered if there were not new systems being formed amid that silvery mist. The trapezium seemed a window, through which he obtained a glimpse of heaven and distant realms in space. What is this marvelous mist? One could almost imagine that there was a strange prophetic meaning in the words which have been translated, "Canst thou loose the bands of Orion?" Telescope after telescope has been turned on this wonderful object with the hope of resolving its light into stars, but it still remains a mystery. How widely extended this gaseous universe may be is an unsolved problem. It must have enormous dimensions. It is a vast gaseous system, sustained by what arrangements or forces we cannot tell, nor can we know what purposes it subserves.

For some time the professor gazed, fascinated by the thought that here was a scene which appeared to him not as it is at the present time but as it may have been hundreds of years ago. He recalled a photograph which he had seen among Dr. Draper's possessions, which was even more impressive than the telescopic aspect. He had studied it carefully, so that it was easy to recall it to his mind and compare it with the view before him. No view, even with the most powerful telescope, was half so instructive or impressive as that little picture.

The thought that seemed so impressive—so thrilling as to surpass even the feeling of awe with which in the solemn darkness of night we see some mighty group of suns sweep into the field of view of the telescope—was this: that here on this tiny square inch of shore-line, with its thin film of chemical sands, had been received the impress of waves which for years had been traversing the solemn depths of space. Over those millions of millions of miles had they swept in their swift rush, at a rate which would circle eight times the entire circumference of the earth in a second, and here on this square inch of glass had they left their message, picturing here for us a nebulous mass occupying billions of billions of cubic miles of space but so remote that to the unaided eye the entire nebula appears but as a faint speck of misty light clinging around one of the faintest stars in the sword of the giant Orion. Here we have mirrored by nature herself "that marvelous round of milky light below Orion,"

"His isles of light, and silvery streams  
And gloomy gulfs of mystic shade."

But the hour was growing late, and the professor withdrew from the contemplation of the magic scene and after carefully closing the dome and rearranging his observatory he returned to his study. He took a book from the shelf, and as he did so a sheet of paper fluttered to the ground and attracted his attention. On opening it he found the lines of a poem which some time before he had clipped from a magazine, and which now as he re-read it seemed a fitting termination to the evening:

#### VOICES OF THE SUNS.\*

"I watched the depths of darkness infinite  
Bestrewn with stars, till dreaming I beheld  
From out the mystic realms beyond my ken  
A star come forth with even gliding rush  
Till, sweeping onward, shone its orb  
With all the mighty meaning of a sun,—  
A sun girt round by many peopled worlds,  
And worlds as yet not peopled, being young,  
And worlds long since unpeopled, being old  
And dead. On all those worlds  
The mystic force which lives in matter worked  
Its mighty will. Dead worlds and worlds scarce  
born,

And worlds alive with myriad forms of life  
Swept circling round that stately ruling orb.  
As it sailed past I heard its solemn voice  
Proclaiming through the realms of space the song—  
The everlasting song of life and death,  
Of wealth of life and everduring waste,  
And death of life. It sang of present, past,  
And coming plenitudes of life; of past  
And coming wastes of death; each without end,  
Without beginning each. 'Along my path  
In front,' it said, 'and backwards whence I came,  
And all around, above, below my course,  
Lie millions such as I, through endless realms  
Of star-strewn space. There is no end to God's  
Domain of suns and systems ruled by suns—  
No end and no beginning through all space;  
But, everlasting, mystic, wonderful,  
The song of us sounds ever round the throne  
Of Him who reigns supreme, the Life of all—  
Unknown! yea evermore unknowable!'   
Then as the psalmist sang of old, I said,  
Because, so moved, I could not choose but speak,  
'What, Lord, is man, that thou shouldst care  
For him or for his kind? the son of man that Thou  
Shouldst mindful be of him or his?' Then rang  
A voice of solemn thunder through the spheres:  
'Say, rather, what is space or time to Me,  
That thou shouldst deem mere mightiness of mass  
And plenitude of time can outweigh mind  
And soul? Can worlds and suns My power know?  
Can æons after æons sing My praise as man,  
Gifted by Me to know My power, can tell  
The meaning of the music of My sphere?'   
Then I said: 'Nay Lord, but if the words  
Of men are worth the utterance, they are thine.  
Lo! we are but the creatures of Thy hand;  
We see but part of all Thy wondrous work;  
Could we but see the glory of Thy light,  
Could we but hear the thunder of Thy power,  
We should become both blind and deaf,  
Deafened by strident tones, made blind by light.  
In Thee alone we live and move, in Thee  
We have our being. But shall we, finite, hymn  
The praises of Thine Infinite? Shall weak man,  
The creature, paint with erring brush the Sun  
Of might and power and wisdom evermore supreme?'

The answer came, 'Shalt thou, My creature, doubt,  
Or hold My will in question? Learn that the least  
Of all the minds My will has made  
Outweighs not once but many thousand times  
The mightiest mere mass: the thoughts of human  
hearts

Outvie the movements of a million suns,  
The rush of systems infinite through space.'

#### CHAPTER VII.

THE pupils of the astronomy class looked forward to their next lesson with much interest, and when they entered the recitation room Professor Douglas could tell from the

\* R. A. Proctor, 1886, in the magazine *Knowledge*, of which he was editor.—M. P.



expression of their faces that they no longer considered the astronomy lesson tiresome.

"This morning," he said, as they took their places at their desks, "we shall go for a ramble in starland, and any questions that may suggest themselves to you I shall be only too glad to answer. At the last lesson we referred to the star-depths astir with life. Among the stars we find an infinite variety of arrangements, streams and clusters of stars, coronets and festoons, like the festoon in Perseus that garlands the black robe of night. In one region they seem to form sprays of stars, like diamonds sprinkled over fern leaves. Elsewhere there are clusters of stars drawn together as if by some irresistible power, and with the telescope these celestial cloudlets are found to consist of myriads of stars, each star a sun, probably the center of a system such as our own solar system. It is a strange thought when we consider what it would be like if we lived on a planet circling around one of these suns. I have a selection on that subject from an author whom I have several times quoted to you. Shall I read it?"

The girls assented and he read:

"Let us take an imaginary journey right into the heart of a cluster of suns. We would find a state of affairs utterly unlike any with which we are acquainted on this earth. We can hardly suppose that those distant star-clusters are mere barren lights, when we remember that they are among the most stupendous creations of the universe. We know that the component stars are suns such as ours; we know that these suns are counted by thousands and tens of thousands; we cannot imagine that all this wealth of matter is glowing without any purpose. We conclude, then, that there must be planets circling around these worlds, and the condition of such worlds must be totally unlike our own. There is perpetual light, perpetual supply of heat, there are no days and seasons to speak of, as far as we can judge.

"We can form some idea of the wonderful scene which would be presented to us if we could visit such a world, because, in reality, it is no other than that which would be presented to ourselves if all the stars seen on the darkest and clearest night were to grow suddenly in luster until the faintest shone with light enough alone to banish night. The wonderful scene thus presented must be carried round by a stately motion of rotation precisely as happens with our own star-sphere. Suns must be always rising and setting, only the magnificent colors which adorn our skies at sunrise and sunset must be wanting

there, being banished by an excess of splendor.

"It is manifest that, at least when the sky is clear, there can be no shadows in the landscapes on those distant worlds, since every quarter of the sky must have its suns. When the sky is partially clouded there will be shadows, though not well-defined shadows, such as we recognize, but rather the lightest possible shade on the side of the objects which lie toward the clouded portion of the sky. But there would be one great disadvantage in living amid such a blaze of glory from the thousands and thousands of stars glowing in the firmament. It would blind them to the wonders in space which lie beyond their cluster. Thus we learn that an excess of light may hide more than it reveals."\*

"How interesting it all is!" exclaimed Caroline Sturgis, her eyes shining with animation. "Does the author tell anything about colored stars?"

"I think so—" Professor Douglas responded, "yes, here is the place:

"Varieties of color are not wanting to make the display more beautiful, more wonderful—yellow and purple suns, red and green suns, companion suns of lilac, russet, fawn, and olive hue, in endless numbers. Many of the stars which crowd upon the view are red, orange, and yellow. Among them are groups of two and three and four (multiple stars, as they are called) among which blue, green, purple, and lilac stars appear, forming the most charming contrast to the ruddy and yellow orbs near which they are commonly seen. In the heavens there are stars of many colors, for "one star differeth from another in glory." But the colors seen with the unaided eye are far less beautiful and less striking than those which are brought into view by the telescope. Amid the star depths there is infinite variety and wealth. The flowers of the sky fairly rival the flowers of earth and the same splendor is bestowed upon the stars on a large scale which is bestowed on a small scale upon the flowers of the field, which "toil not neither do they spin, yet Solomon in all his glory was not arrayed like one of these." Let us imagine the case of a world circling as our earth does in her orbit, but around a sun of a rich orange color, while a companion sun of a blue color travels round the same sun, on a path resembling that of the planet Jupiter. The blue sun would be a large and brilliant orb, as seen from the world whose condition I propose to describe; but the orange sun would necessarily be far more brilliant and look far larger, being in reality the larger sun and also the nearer. We may reasonably imagine that several other planets travel around the orange sun, others around both suns (that is, outside the path of the blue sun, and that, again, the blue sun has several planets traveling in immediate dependence upon it.

"Now, in the first place let us take the case where

\* "Expanse of Heaven," p. 215. R. A. Proctor.—M. P.

the planet is between the orange sun and the blue sun, and let us suppose that the season corresponds to our spring. Then it is manifest that, since one sun illumines one side of the globe and the other illumines the other, there can be no night; it is orange day to one half of the world, and blue day to the other. Moreover, since the season corresponds to our springtime, it follows that orange day lasts exactly as long as blue day, and, using for convenience the division of the day into twenty-four hours, there are, all over the world, twelve hours of orange day and twelve hours of blue day. This however, would not last very long, any more than on our own earth we have Jupiter visible all night for any length of time. The blue sun would gradually take up the position which Jupiter has when he is an evening star. This would happen at least if the blue sun were going the same way round the orange sun that the planet was going.

"Now we can easily see what would follow from this. The blue sun would, in fact, rise before the orange sun had set. Thus there would be orange day as before, but toward orange sunset there would be two suns, the orange sun nearing the west, the blue sun passing over the eastern horizon. Then would come orange sunset and blue day; but the blue sun would set before the orange sun rose, and there would be, therefore, a short night, though no doubt not a dark night, since there would be blue twilight in the west and orange twilight in the east. Gradually the length of this night would increase, the length of the double day also increasing, but the orange and blue hours gradually shortening. At length the blue sun would have drawn quite near to the place of the orange sun in the heavens, and there would be double day and night, but neither orange day nor blue day alone. The double day would probably be white since the colors of the two suns are supposed to be complementary. After this the blue sun would pass to the other side (the west) of the orange sun, and would be placed like Jupiter when he is a morning star. There would then be blue morning, white day, orange evening, and night, the night gradually growing shorter and shorter until at length the blue sun would be opposite the orange sun, and there would be no night, but simple alternations of blue day and orange day, as at first."\*

"How strange it would be to live on such a world!" said Marion, who had listened with the greatest attention. "Has not Flammarion written about some such imaginary planet traveling around Gamma Andromedæ?"

"An account of such a world is given in his book 'Uranie,'" replied the professor, "and if I remember rightly it is somewhat as follows:

"Uranie led a mortal from earth toward

the star Gamma Andromedæ, which was a sun absolutely blue, looking like a disk cut out of our most beautiful terrestrial skies, and standing out brightly against a background entirely black, besprinkled with stars. This sapphire sun was the center of a system of planets which received their light from it. Near it was a second sun, a beautiful emerald green, and still another sun which was yellow-orange. The blue sun, which was the smallest, revolved around the green, and this, with its companion, revolved around the great orange sun. The orange sun glowed with a vivid color, its rays mingling with those shed by its two companions and producing by the contrast a singular effect. Everything on the worlds belonging to the sapphire sun was blue—the landscape, water, plants, and the rocks, which were slightly tinged with green where the rays of the second sun fell, and scarcely touched by the rays of the orange sun, which was just rising above the horizon."

"I would like to know what makes these suns different colors," said Lydia Ferris, who was deeply interested in the subject.

"The colors of stars depend upon the kind of vapors surrounding them, according to the theory of the great scientist Dr. Huggins," replied the professor. "Each star glows in reality with a white light, but the white light has in some cases to pass through vapors of a ruddy hue, and therefore the star looks ruddy, while the light of other stars shines through blue, green, purple, or any of the endless variety of colors, and therefore these stars look blue, green, purple, or yellow, as the color may be."

"May I ask a question now?" requested Caroline Sturgis. "I know it sounds very foolish, but I would like to know why the stars twinkle."

"I am much pleased that you asked me that question," replied the professor, "as it is one that is often heard and seldom properly answered. We are living under a great ocean of air, that surrounds the entire globe. To see the stars we must look at them through this vast ocean of air. If it kept perfectly quiet while we looked, all would be well, but unfortunately that is not its inten-

\* "Expanse of Heaven," p. 239. R. A. Proctor.—*M. P.*

tion. It is usually very unsteady, and often in a state of great commotion. The result of this disturbed condition of the air is to make a star apparently twinkle and to more or less totally destroy the image of a celestial body when looked at through a great telescope. As Professor Barnard says: 'The atmosphere is the great foe to large telescopes, which not only magnify the stars but also the wave disturbances in the air. The ideal place for a telescope would be that planet which has no atmosphere at all. But such a place cannot be found on our planet, and if it could a new kind of observer would have to be invented to run the telescope.'

"You were saying just now, Professor Douglas," queried Marion, "that there may be planets traveling around the stars. Do you suppose they are other worlds like ours?"

"That is a difficult question to answer," replied the professor. "While scientists can teach us many facts concerning the stars and planets, yet no astronomer can tell us about life in other worlds. He may have his theories as to the possibility of such worlds being in existence, and speculate as to their supposed inhabitants, but he can never have any positive knowledge on the subject. Spectrum analysis has revealed to us the fact that many of the elements which are to be found on our own earth exist in the far distant stars and nebulae, and they would be present in any planets which may be circling around the stars. Professor Langley gives the following in his book on 'New Astronomy':

"We have literally within our bodies samples of the most important elements of which the great universe is composed, and you and I are not only like each other, and brothers in humanity, but children of the sun and stars in the literal sense, having bodies actually made in great part of the same elements that made Aldebaran, Sirius, and other stars. They and we are near relations."

"What a wonderful thought!" said Lydia Ferris. "And how much closer it seems to bring us to the stars! I do wish, though, that it were possible to find out if the stars are inhabited."

"That is impossible," replied the professor, smiling. "I mean that the stars them-

selves could not very well be inhabited, since they are glowing suns just as our own sun is. But there is a possibility that around these suns there may be planets, just as there are planets traveling round our sun. A great astronomer named Laplace suggested that space might hold as many dark as bright bodies. In 1844 this theory was partially confirmed by an astronomer named Bessel, who while making a study of Sirius inferred that it did not travel alone. If the star had been solitary its path would have been straight, whereas it undulated markedly and regularly once in about half a century. There must be some reason why it did not keep in a straight path, and astronomers began to search for the cause of the trouble. On January 31, 1862, a mysterious attendant was seen by Alvan G. Clark. The companion of Sirius is a dull yellow star of the eighth magnitude, almost lost in the glittering radiance of its great neighbor. It has been suggested that it may shine by reflected light from Sirius, and in that case it must be a planet. But such a planet is probably equal in size to more than a million earths. For many years, however, astronomers could not believe that this planet, if such it is, should still be massive enough to sway the onward march of Sirius visibly to and fro. But this has been proved beyond a doubt. Thus we have a system curiously unlike our own solar system. Its chief body, Sirius, shines ten thousand times more brightly than its attendant, while the so-called planet is unusually massive in proportion to its light. The smaller body may thus already have advanced far on the road toward planetary solidity and obscurity.

"Voltaire, I believe, is the only writer who has been able to interview an inhabitant of Sirius. This was done in 1752. The imaginary description appears in his 'Micro-megas,' being the journey of an inhabitant of Sirius with a professor from Saturn. He had been banished from Sirius for writing a book on insects, which was supposed to have some heresy concealed in its pages. Knowing the laws of gravitation, he was enabled to go from globe to globe as a bird hops from branch to branch. When the

traveler from Sirius (where, according to 'Micromegas,' all the inhabitants were proportionately tall and long-lived) discovered our own little solar system and lighted on what we call the majestic planet Saturn, he was naturally astonished at the pettiness of everything compared with the world he had left.

"That the Saturnian inhabitants were in his eyes a race of mere dwarfs (they were only a mile high instead of twenty-four miles high like himself) did not make them seem contemptible to his philosophic mind, for he thought that such little creatures might still think and reason. When he learned that these beings were correspondingly short-lived, and passed but fifteen thousand years from the cradle to the grave, he could not but agree that their life was but a span, their globe an atom. He met the secretary of the Saturn Academy, and was surprised to learn that the inhabitants of Saturn had but seventy-two senses. He was still more surprised when the professor from Saturn informed him that there was a small planet revolving around the sun whereon the people had but five senses, although some people were vainly endeavoring to find the sixth.

"The traveler from Sirius begged the professor to take him to this strange planet. It was our earth which they longed to explore. Seeing only a pond, the Atlantic, they concluded there were no inhabitants. Subsequently, picking up a whale and laughing at its smallness, they concluded that the earth was only peopled by whales. By the aid of a microscope they finally discovered certain animalculæ on the surface of the earth, and even conversed with them. The professors laughed heartily at the ignorant speech of the mites, refusing to believe that intelligence could exist in such almost invisible insects until one of them (it was an astronomer with a sextant) measured his height to an inch. A ship of learned men was next discovered floating on the ocean, and after the learned philosophers had examined it they dropped it in the ocean and returned to their respective homes, there to relate their wondrous adventures."

The girls laughed with amusement at this

fanciful narration, and then Nellie Cameron asked seriously,

"Are there any other suns with attendant planets?"

"The variable star Algol, in Perseus, is also attended by a massive companion," replied the professor, "which is assumed to pass between us and Algol, thus causing it to vary in brightness. The diameter of Algol is shown to be one million one hundred thousand miles, and that of its dark companion eight hundred and forty thousand miles, the latter being nearly equal in diameter to our sun. Dr. Chandler places the star at such a distance from us that light which occupies eight and a quarter minutes in reaching us from the sun needs more than forty-six years to come to us from Algol. Hence when the star appears faint it is not because its companion is now between us and it, but because it did pass before it almost half a century ago."

Here the professor opened a notebook to one of his apt selections:

"Spica, in the constellation of Virgo, and Rigel, in Orion, both show indications of having comparatively small, close, and dark companions revolving around them. One cannot well help asking whether we may not here be dealing with phenomena that indicate the existence of actual planetary systems belonging to these giant suns.\*

"It has also been suggested," he continued, "that probably Procyon is attended by a companion star, which, though much fainter, cannot be much less massive. An anti-Copernican system seems exemplified in Zeta Caneri."

Again referring to his notebook he read:

"Here a cool, dark globe, clothed possibly with the vegetation appropriate to those strange climes, and plentifully stocked, it may be, with living things, is waited on, for the supply of their needs, by three vagrant suns, the motions of which it controls, while maintaining the dignity of its own comparative rest, or rather of its lesser degree of movement."†

"Perhaps there are suns and worlds forming in the nebulae," suggested Marion Cleveland.

"Very likely," replied the professor, "but at present, although there are stars sprinkled

\* "Astronomy with an Opera Glass," p. 157. Garrett P. Serviss.—*M. P.*

† "System of the Stars," p. 211. Agnes M. Clerke.—*M. P.*



over these glowing clouds, millions of years will probably pass away before the formation of such systems is completed."

"What are nebulae?" asked Caroline Sturgis.

"They are mysterious looking objects," replied the professor, "which resemble clouds in the sky, for each of them apparently occupies but a small space amid the stars. In reality, were our earth and millions of bodies as large put together they would not be nearly so great as one of these nebulae. Our solar system would be but a mere speck. The most wonderful nebula which has been observed in the heavens is the nebula of Orion. In the constellation of Lyra there is a ring-shaped nebula, and this gigantic ring is composed of luminous gas. To judge of the size of this ring let us suppose that a railway were laid across it and the train you entered at one side was not to stop until it reached the other side. How long do you think this journey would require? Professor Ball gives rather an amusing illustration in his book 'Starland.' He writes as follows:

"I recollect some time ago a picture in *Punch* which showed a train about to start from London to Brighton, and the guard walking up and down making the announcement, 'This train stops nowhere.' An old gentleman was seen vainly gesticulating out of the window and imploring to be let out ere the frightful journey was commenced. In the nebular railway the passengers would almost require such a warning. Let the train start at a speed of a mile a minute. It would be rushing on for a thousand years, and at the end of that time the journey would certainly not have been completed. Nor do I venture to say what ages must elapse ere the terminus at the other side of the ring nebula would be reached.\*

"Another writer says:

"In the constellation of the Fox there is a peculiar looking nebula supposed to resemble a dumb-bell. It covers quite a large space when seen through a powerful telescope. It is much farther away than the nearest stars, and its light must have been hundreds of years in coming to us. It must occupy a region of space exceeding that which encloses our solar system many million times. The spectroscope, or light-sifter, tells us that it is composed of glowing hydrogen gas, immense masses of nitrogen, and two unknown substances. Thus we see that a ray of light from that fluffy ball has unraveled the mystery

of its composition, after traveling millions of miles. The correct way of describing what the spectroscope tells us about this object is to say that instead of its light presenting all the colors of the rainbow it is found, when sifted by the spectroscope, to contain three colors only, all of them greenish, but slightly different in tint. One of the colors is precisely such a tint of green as comes (with four other colors) from glowing hydrogen gas, and shows us that there are enormous masses of hydrogen in that remote cloud; another tint shows, in like manner, that there are immense masses of nitrogen; but the third tint has not been found to correspond with a tint of any known substance."\*

"Please explain about the spectroscope," asked Caroline Sturgis. "It is all new to me."

"I am pleased to do so," replied the professor, "and still more that you have shown enough interest to ask me about anything you do not understand. With regard to the spectroscope, or light-sifter, it is an instrument provided with glass prisms, through which the ray of light passes from the sun, stars, or nebulae, and is changed into a band of rainbow-colored hue. We compare these colors with the lights given by the different elements when burning, and thus we are enabled to discover the elements which exist in the stars and nebulae."

"I did not know that elements burned with different colors," said Caroline, who did not yet understand this difficult problem.

"You will study that in chemistry," replied the professor, "which teaches you that each substance, when kindled, gives its own particular color, by which it is possible to recognize it. For instance, sodium when burning gives a yellow color, strontium gives a red light, which nothing else will give. Magnesium burns with a white light so dazzling that it pales the gas flames to insignificance. When we recognize these colors in the ray of light sent from a star we know exactly what it means, and that is how we have learned that there is sodium, iron, and magnesium, for instance, in Sirius, Aldebaran, and other stars. But to return to the nebulae. There is a very celebrated nebula in the constellation of Andromeda which has been called the most beautiful queen of nebulae. It has been described as

\* "Starland," p. 331. R. S. Ball.—*M. P.*

\* "Easy Star Lessons," p. 177. R. A. Proctor.—*M. P.*



présenting the appearance of a candle as seen through horn, and has often been mistaken for a comet. A ship captain who had crossed the Atlantic told Professor Bond of Cambridge that he had seen a small comet which had kept in sight during the entire voyage. In reality he had seen the nebula in Andromeda. Huggins suggested that the two nebulae near Andromeda were probably planets forming. A sixth magnitude star appeared in the midst of the great nebula in 1885. In a few months it totally disap-

peared. No telescope has been able to discover the nature of this nebula which seems to be shrouded in mystery. There are other nebulae scattered in profusion over the depths of space, all masses of luminous gas. They are of varied forms, such as ring nebulae, elliptic, spiral, planetary nebulae, nebulous stars, and large nebulae of irregular form. The large telescopes of modern days have revealed many new nebulae, and their number has become so great that upwards of eight thousand are now on record."

*(To be continued.)*

### THE PROTECTION OF ITALIAN EMIGRANTS IN AMERICA.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE ITALIAN "NUOVA ANTOLOGIA."

BY LUIGI BODIO.

ONE of the most important questions considered in the geographical congress held last September in Rome was the one touching the oversight of our emigrants. Previously—in 1892—the congress sitting at Genoa had discussed this subject at length, and had formulated several propositions which may be summed up as follows:

First, the governments which desire immigrants ought to base their colonization laws on the direct offer of small tracts of land to be handed over in fee simple to their cultivators. Second, the Italian government ought to open a bureau of information in order to distribute notices regarding national and foreign colonies, to oversee the actions of emigrant agents, and to ascertain the actual condition of colonizing enterprises. Third, while not condemning private companies formed to assist Italian emigrants, it would recommend the establishing of a new and general association to compete with the emigrant agencies. Such an association should not be founded with charitable aims only, nor for speculative purposes, but with the intention of aiding emigrants by means of loans at a moderate rate of interest. In this way the acquisition of land might be facilitated to the emigrants.

Fourth, the congress of Genoa also pointed out the necessity of amending the law of 1888 in some particulars, especially in the part which concerns the authorization of agencies, the nomination of subagents, and the guaranties demanded of them. The congress also petitioned the government and Parliament to modify the laws of military recruiting so that without offending the principle of obligatory service in the army the accomplishment of this duty might be less onerous to those citizens who reside abroad.

In the three years that have elapsed since the congress of Genoa we might naturally expect that certain of the views then expressed had been attained and that the obstacles enumerated had been lessened. This, however, does not seem to be the case. We note rather that in recent years emigration has steadily decreased, not only from Italy but from all Europe. The number of Italian emigrants to the United States suddenly fell from about 70,000 in 1893 to 39,000 in 1894. The immigration into Brazil presents sudden variations also. In 1887 about 40,000 Italians arrived there, in 1888, 104,000, the year following, 36,000. In 1891 the current enlarges to 183,000, then it is again restricted to 43,000 in 1894.

To the Argentine Republic in 1888 there went out 75,000 Italian emigrants, and in 1889, 88,000. Then came the financial troubles there, and in 1890 the number fell to 39,000, and in 1891 to exactly 15,511. This same year the premium on gold passed the limit of 400 per cent. Later the situation improved, and the immigration rose to 37,000. Since the economic and social conditions of the countries which furnish the emigrants cannot be so greatly affected from one year to another, it is evident that the great variations in totals depend especially on the state of prosperity or misfortune of the countries which are colonized. But if emigration diminishes, if our peasants and workmen have greater difficulty in finding work in foreign lands, this state of things obliges us to be more careful in protecting our emigrants and removing the obstacles they encounter.

For Italy emigration is a necessity. We should desire that some hundreds of thousands of our people should find annually an abiding place abroad. If twice as many left us as now leave we should not lament the loss of them, but rather rejoice that they find work outside. Under the present industrial and agricultural conditions we have too stable a population, considering the ratio now existing between the amount of available capital and the number of workers. The density of the population of Italy is 107 inhabitants to a square kilometer. In Germany it averages 97. It is 80 in Austria, and 72 in France. France has plenty of capital, lent at most moderate rates of interest. It has well cultivated lands, seeming almost like gardens. It has great advantages in the skill of its artisans, in its divided estates (some think too subdivided), and with all this it has a population a third less than ours, supposing the territory of the two countries to be equal. We have masses of poor peasants and many unemployed operatives that might become a menace to the social equilibrium. So emigration is a relief to the population that remains behind, which can then be employed more advantageously with the capital available.

We are now discussing the methods and

means of colonizing Eritrea, and surely we should strive to gain profit from our African possession as soon as possible. But Franchetti, who has studied up the subject, shows that an advance of four thousand *lire* is necessary to a family composed of from five to seven persons, for building the house, getting implements, seeds, and provisions, until the first crop is gathered, without reckoning in the traveling expenses, the cost of digging wells, surveying, and sanitary service, which would devolve on the government. There is a talk of colonizing Sardinia and populating the Roman territory. Well and good! But even for these undertakings heavy advances of capital are needed, to say nothing of the obstacles which the imperfect assessment of these lands would create. The manner of holding land in common which prevails in Sardinia creates serious doubts as to the condition of any who would seek to acquire individual property and real estate in that island, not to mention the recent fiscal troubles which have arisen there owing to the inability of some thousands of property owners to pay their taxes.

Draining and making healthful the swampy and malarial lands which render so great a part of the Italian coast so desolate is one of the greatest objects of interest to our country, as it is a duty for a nation having political unity to people the desert which surrounds its capital. This may not be denied nor passed over. But internal colonization cannot be undertaken with any measure of efficiency until capital can be employed at quite a lower rate of interest than obtains at present. Besides, we do not believe that the extent of barren lands in Italy is so great as to attract to them a very large part of the current of emigration. Italy has an area of 28,500,000 hectares, of which only 20,000,000 are productive, inclusive of the Alpine pastures. The other 8,000,000 are not cultivated. But of these eight, 4,654,000 hectares are occupied by roads, public and private waters, and lakes, beds of rivers and streams, or are mountain lands so far above sea level that they are not susceptible of any yield

whatsoever. There remain, then, 3,772,000 hectares uncultivated and mostly given up to grazing, and out of these only about 1,000,000, according to investigations carried on by the Department of Agriculture, could be usefully cultivated. And the expense of preparing that portion of the million which is now malarial and miasmatic would be so great as to deter any but a most flourishing public treasury from attempting it.

In America, on the other hand, our emigrants are taken up without any subsidy on the part of the state, the mother country. For a few years they may be in straightened circumstances, to be sure, but for the primal necessities of life an organization of any kind which they find on the ground is sufficient. They reach the new country and are received there, carrying with themselves their implements and a few score of *lire*, if indeed they are not actually in debt. It is our duty to foster voluntary emigration, the only emigration which is useful, which bears in itself latent energies, that is, those powers of initiative and resistance which conduce to the success of the emigrant together with benefit to his native country and the new country of adoption. It is our duty to seek to obtain for the masses of workers a useful employment for their labors. On the one hand we ought to protect their confidence from being abused by self-interested agents, on the other we ought to increase the outlets, remove the obstacles, bring the men nearer to the means of production, to the mines, to the earth.

There are 34 emigrant agencies in Italy having a total capital of 2,690,000 *lire*. The number of subagents has increased from 5,172 in 1892 to 7,169 to-day. In some provinces they have more than doubled in a few years. The same difficulty regarding the subagents was experienced in Switzerland, and gave rise to a law restricting their number. For a time they numbered 400 persons. They had no salaries from the agencies, but were paid in proportion to the number of emigrants recruited. Hence a genuine propaganda. But a federal law of 1888 imposed an additional capital of 3,000 *lire* for every subagent, besides a tax of 30

*lire* a head at the approval of every nomination of a subagent. The number was thus reduced to 170. Our laws do not prohibit, as do the Swiss laws, the advance of passage-money to the emigrant, by the agency, to be paid back later on. A part of our emigrants are given a free passage, offered by some of the federal states of Brazil. But these states prefer families of peasants, comprising, each one, several individuals fit for work. They make a contract with some bank which assumes the payment to the steamship companies of the passage from a European port to the Brazilian.

Let us now see what is done to protect our emigrants who go to ports in the United States. The minister of foreign affairs, Baron Blanc, succeeded in obtaining an important concession from the United States government and in having a bureau of information and protection established for Italian emigrants at Ellis Island, the place of disembarking at New York. It is well known that lately in the United States, even before a sharp industrial and commercial crisis occurred, a current of opinion unfavorable to immigration was formed on account of the competition which was maintained by European laborers, who accepted a scale of wages lower than that which had been paid to American operatives. The legislation of the United States was somewhat affected by this movement, and in the direction of limiting immigration. Individuals afflicted with certain maladies were sent back, and those who brought with them so little money as to give rise to the apprehension that they might become objects of public charity. Then those under contract to perform certain specified work in the New World were also refused a landing. All these restrictions have affected the Italians more, perhaps, than any other class of immigrants at Ellis Island, partly because they are so poor, partly because they are under contract, and partly also because they are tricked into saying they are under contract by being led to believe that they will land the more quickly for making such a statement. Sometimes the American authorities send back our emigrants who have left wife or children in

Italy, under the general plea of "undesirable immigration," since these immigrants do not intend to become naturalized American citizens. The United States willingly receives any immigration which has a stamp of permanence about it, which promises to assimilate itself to the American people, which is desirous to share in its political life, which adopts the language of the country, which has a family in America or soon forms one, so that the children may be Americans in tongue and aspiration and character. But it does not like birds of passage. It is not so much the quantity as it is the quality of the immigration which is the object of serious attention in the United States, due to the deliberate purpose not to allow the immigration of non-assimilating elements to come to disturb the political and social status of the republic. In the fiscal year 1894-5 there were 731 Italian emigrants rejected out of 33,902 who had reached Ellis Island.

What the financial condition of our emigrants is has been shown by individual testimony gathered by the American commission. In the questioning to which the newly arrived are submitted it is asked, among other things, how much money they bring with them, and they are even asked to show the money they have on them. In 1895 our 33,902 emigrants disembarking at Ellis Island had with them \$362,000, that is, a little more than \$10 apiece, including those who were rejected as "paupers" and "undesirable immigrants." In the year preceding, the average to each individual was practically the same. Our minister of foreign affairs concerned himself particularly about the protection of our emigrants to America, and endeavored to disarm so far as possible the hostile views prevailing there against our fellow-countrymen. In June, 1894, an American bureau was opened at Ellis Island for the dissemination of information regarding the different states and their inducements to immigrants, the railways, corporations, and individuals who might offer work. The secretary of the treasury conferred on our ambassador the privilege of nominating to that bureau one or two Italian

agents to instruct our emigrants and offer useful suggestions as to their future location. Professor Alessandro Oldrini, a man of much intelligence and culture and well acquainted with the United States, having resided there for more than ten years, was the first Italian commissioner appointed by Baron Blanc, and he was soon assisted by Egisto Rossi, who had likewise been a close student of American affairs and had written a highly valued book on the United States. We now hope that the royal government may furnish the bureau with the means to fulfill the most important part of its duties, that of giving information to emigrants by which they may find work and be assisted in the acquisition of land.

The Italian government spends now \$500 a month for the salary of the commissioners and their assistants and the expenses of the bureau. But the work should not be confined to aiding our people at this office only, and gaining for them a new hearing before the American authorities in case it is at first decided that some of them are to be rejected as unfit. Nor is it sufficient that our commissioners aid the emigrants in furthering their claims against the emigrant agencies for the bad treatment they may have received on board ship, or for the loss of baggage and the like. The most important thing is that they should give them useful indications toward furthering their journey to the Central and Western States, where they may be able to find work on the farms and in mines, or toward thinning out those who have settled in New York, where our people are massed together in most unfortunate conditions. This part of the task our governmental agency at Ellis Island has not yet been able to develop. The means are lacking. The commissioners would need to make trips into the interior in order to verify the exact conditions of the places as regards temperature, dryness, healthfulness, agrarian contracts, and so on.

Out of the total number of 34,000 Italian emigrants who arrived in the United States during the fiscal year 1894-5 about 20,000 passed through the office of our commission straight to New York City and its suburbs.



The other 14,000 scattered about in the interior of the country, either rejoining families already established in the different states of the Union or going into mining regions. Now it would be a good thing to facilitate this pushing into the center of the United States by our emigrants, to the mines of Colorado, Michigan, and Minnesota, the cattle ranches of Texas, or the fruit farms of California. About \$10,000 would be needed to enable our commission in the United States to establish a labor bureau, such as you find at the barge office for Germans and Irish, in order that our emigrants should not be obliged to deal with the *padroni* but should find a sure source of information. Such a sum could also provide for a deposit office offering sure guaranties to the holders of money, who now lose as much as \$150,000 in one year by the rascality of the so-called bankers of the port. A tax of two *lire* a head on our emigrants would easily provide this extra sum. Some such arrangement has been made by the federal government, which demands a dollar a head from the steamship companies for use in the inspection of immigration.

The minister who has looked after the protection of emigrants to the United States is meditating the same thing in some countries of Latin America, where the need is no less felt than in the North. In the Argentine Republic the Italians are practically at home, such is their number in proportion to the rest of the population. In Brazil, however, and in its federated states a similar bureau of control ought to be established. The condition of the Italians who settle in Brazil is known. You cannot say that it is altogether bad. The state colonies here must be distinguished from the private plantations, those opened first and those founded later on. Many Italians are quite well off in Brazil. Many others must pass through indescribable trials before reaching a tolerable situation. It is certain

that the organization of the public service and private colonization enterprises is deficient. No one could certify that the new arrivals have really found what was promised them in the circulars distributed in their homes. They should find the lots of land surveyed, the roads laid out, houses built, and so on, all of which is not looked after as it should be. And besides, even if they receive the wages paid in paper money to the extent that they were told, all kinds of provisions are raised to exaggerated prices and furnished by a monopoly held by the contractor, and these prices lower the worth of their money. The home government has here abundant reason for intervening in behalf of its oppressed subjects.

In short, far from discouraging emigration, we should aid it in every way, improving its quality and making it an aid beyond the sea to the influence of the mother country. It is a safety valve for class hatreds and social unrest, an efficacious instrument of human equality. For us Italians, coming late in our development, it is also a school. The higher classes should see to it that it is kept healthy and is not left without protection. And especially should we rejoice when our emigration tends toward those lands which are settled by peoples superior to us in methods, in boldness, in economic potentiality—the peoples that to-day form the dominant race, the Anglo-Saxon. This race is dominant because it is educated in the spirit of reform, opposing justice to resignation, individual energy to alms-taking, work to apathy, and success to good intentions.

Such is the principle of natural selection, and we must take the world as it is, not as we should like it to be. We must convince the majority that the emigrant is the most useful commercial traveler for his own country possible, and that only after him come the manufacturers, the writers, diplomacy, and defense by force of arms.



## THE NEW OLYMPIC GAMES.

BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM A. ELLIOTT, M.A.

OF ALLEGHENY COLLEGE.

THIS month will witness the inauguration of a series of international athletic contests under the name of the New Olympic Games. When first proposed the plan was regarded as the airy project of unpractical enthusiasts or the pedantical effort of worshipers of the past to bring forth from antiquity's grave an institution long since dead. Now that success seems certain, carplings have given place to murmurs of expectant interest.

The credit for this unique idea belongs to a Frenchman, Baron de Coubertin, of distinguished family and scholarly attainments, who is now secretary of the international committee having general charge of the enterprise. The chairman of the committee is Demetrias Bikelas, probably the best known living Greek man of letters. The membership includes notable and influential men of all countries.

The institution of the games is meant to be permanent. Contests will be held every four years, thus reviving the old period of the Olympiad. It was decided to have one at Paris during the World's Exposition of 1900 and another four years later at New York or some other American city. London, Berlin, and other cities will come later in an order yet to be determined. For the first meeting there could be but one place. Greece is the country to which we owe the custom of athletic contests. There they had reached their highest and purest development, and it is fitting that there should be witnessed the renaissance of one of the most noble and glorious institutions of antiquity.

There has been some criticism because the name Olympic is used for games that are not to be celebrated at Olympia. This is but petty carping. The name Olympia long since outgrew the narrow limits of the Altis in the Elean hills. The word that stands for all that is noble and illustrious in athletic

sports has gone out into all the world and become the whole world's heritage. If these new games shall show the same principles of sturdy honor and ennobling manliness that characterized the ancient games when at their best, they may justly claim the ancient title. Not the place but the principle determines the name.

It would have been a pretty conceit, it is true, to consecrate, as it were, these new international contests by holding them on the site of old Olympia, running the races, for instance, on the selfsame stadium that Heracles with giant foot measured off. But that stadium lies under fifteen feet of sand washed down by the shifting Alpheus. Only its two ends have been laid bare. Then too the Altis lies in a sparsely settled region, remote from any town, and has scant accommodations for strangers. The modern enthusiasm for athletics has not yet become keen enough to induce its votaries to live for days on hard bread and spring water and to sleep stretched out along stone porticoes or under the sighing pine trees, as the people of old were glad to do when they flocked to the great quadrennial festival of the Greek world.

Yet the games this month will be held in a classic spot, the stadium where were formerly celebrated the Panathenaic Games, on the occasion of the greatest of Athenian festivals. A nook in the hills on the eastern edge of Athens forms a great amphitheater shaped like an elongated horseshoe. The arena is six hundred seventy feet long and one hundred nine feet wide. All around save at the open end of the horseshoe the steep hills rise high, affording room for thousands of spectators. In the second century after Christ, Herodes Atticus, that princely lover of the Greek land and people, at his own expense fitted the great area with marble seats for full fifty thousand.

One does not wonder at the report that in his lavishness he exhausted the quarries of Mount Pentelicus. Those magnificent marble benches long ago went to fill mediaeval limekilns. But a second Atticus has not been wanting; Georgios Averoff, a wealthy Greek merchant of Alexandria, has given in successive donations almost a million francs to make a beginning in restoring the stadium to its pristine splendor. The barrier of the arena, the first three rows of seats, and the supporting walls at the end will be of glistening marble. The rest of the seats will be of wood, to be replaced with marble as opportunity shall offer. In this country such magnificence would be but wastefulness; there marble is the cheapest durable material that can be used. We here would make the seats of brick and rubble and veneer them with two-inch marble slabs. They would last a generation perhaps. Those Greek seats will stand till Judgment Day, if left unspoiled by reckless man. When this magnificent amphitheater shall have been fully restored, no other city in the world will have an assembly place equal to it in beauty and spaciousness.

Back of the stadium the hills rise gradually to the foot of flowery Mount Hymettus, sure to be all-glorious in its wealth of purple hues on these April days. In front flows the Ilissus, whose plane-shaded banks Socrates and his disciples used to frequent. A few hundred yards away, in full view from the starting point, rises the rugged Acropolis, crowned with the orange-hued columns of the Parthenon, in whose sculptured frieze Pheidias has perpetuated the glories of the great Athenian festival. Amid such scenes, on such historic ground, can athletes fail to do their best?

In this first celebration it is not designed to present a mere reproduction of the ancient program, interesting as that would be historically. The new games are not to be the old ones transplanted to these modern times, but they are designed to hold the same relation to general athletics of to-day as did the Olympic festival to the athletics of its age. It is fifteen hundred and two years since the last festival was

held in the sacred grove at Olympia. The world has moved since then, and some features of the old program would be impossible, others not consonant with modern taste.

In these days the ancient list of events would seem a meager one. It was opened with the foot races, the first of once the stadium's length, about two hundred yards, another of twice that distance, and the long race, from twelve to twenty times the length of the stadium. There was also a race in which the runners carried each a heavy shield, as if charging upon an enemy.

After the races came the *pentathlon* consisting of five distinct events. The first was leaping with the aid of weights, in which great distances were covered, though the tradition that Phayllos once cleared fifty feet can scarcely be credited. The second event was throwing the discus, a flat circular stone about ten inches in diameter and weighing some twelve pounds. Holding this upright in his right hand the athlete could by using all his weight and strength hurl it over a hundred feet. It is a difficult feat on account of the strain on the wrist in holding so large and heavy a disk upright by the lower edge. However, it is a valuable means of exercise and has much to commend it to modern athletes. After the discus throwing came hurling the spear, either directly from the hand or by means of a thong attached in such a way as to give a firm hold to the fingers. Running and wrestling were the last events of the *pentathlon*, of subordinate interest but necessary sometimes to decide between different victors in the first three. The victory could be gained only by a good all-around athlete, since success in three of the five events was necessary to win the prize.

Next followed numerous horse races of various sorts, both in harness and in saddle. Then came the regular wrestling and boxing matches, and last of all the *pancratation*, a savage contest of wrestling and boxing combined.

Victors were rewarded simply with wreaths made from branches of the sacred olive tree, said to have been planted by Heracles

himself. Their names were announced by a herald and hailed with tumultuous applause by kinsmen and friends and fellow citizens, who counted it an honor so much as to belong to the same city with an Olympic champion. They were celebrated by poets, eulogized by orators, honored with statues, overwhelmed with civic and social distinctions.

Up to the time of the Persian Wars the Olympic festival lasted one day only, but at the seventy-seventh celebration, 472 B. C., the time was extended and was thereafter five days. The first meeting of the modern series will last ten days, beginning April 5. The local arrangements are in the hands of a committee at Athens, with the popular and energetic Crown Prince Constantine at its head.

There will be races of one hundred, four hundred, eight hundred, and fifteen hundred meters; a hurdle race; all kinds of jumping and vaulting; putting the shot, and discus throwing. There will be all sorts of gymnasium events, such as feats with parallel and horizontal bars, rings, arm-pull, and the like. Fencing and wrestling will not be slighted. There will be opportunity for the crack shots of the nations to try their skill and for lovers of horsemanship to witness their favorite sport.

Noticeable as is the advance here seen on the old games, greater innovations are planned. There will be matches in cricket, in tennis, and in such other similar sports as shall be represented by contestants. What a pity that America could not send over two of her best amateur teams to initiate the Orient into the mysteries and fascinations of baseball! Still further, there will be bicycle races, the shortest of two thousand meters, the longest a time race of twelve hours. Even into the classic East the conquering wheel is making its way, no less popular there than here.

The most interesting event historically will be the long distance race from Marathon to Athens, repeating the feat of him who brought the glad news of Miltiades' victory to the trembling city. His time will scarcely be equalled. True we have not the of-

ficial record, but a few days before the battle Pheidippides ran from Athens to Sparta, a hundred and fifty miles, much of the way over rough mountain paths, in less than forty-eight hours, and a messenger of victory on that glad August day would not be slow in going some twenty-two miles, weary though he was from slaughtering barbarians all day long. Then, too, we remember that the brave messenger ran so fast that with the first cry of victory he fell dead at the feet of his countrymen.

Besides all this there will be boat races of various kinds. Think of it! In the matchless waters of the blue Saronic Gulf, where three hundred Greek ships withstood Xerxes' thousand and beat back forever the tide of Persian invasion, the boatmen of the nations will meet in earnest but friendly rivalry.

The victors in the contests will receive their prizes at the hands of King George. These will be olive crowns, more lasting if not more honorable than those of old, for they will be of wrought silver.

There should be but little question as to where the prizes will go. The Anglo-Saxon race is preëminently the athletic race of this age. The other nations of Europe are distinctly inferior. The conscript system in continental Europe has fostered an overshadowing spirit of militarism. The strong leaning toward military life and habit is evident everywhere. Military exercises take the time and attention elsewhere given to out-of-door sports. Thus it is that only in America, Great Britain, and, to a less degree, Scandinavia, is interest in athletic sports other than rare and slight. In Greece there has been of late years something of a revival of the ancient athletic enthusiasm. During these centuries of poverty, degradation, and misfortune, the love of contests of physical skill and prowess has not entirely died out. But Greece is too poor as yet, too recently freed from the toils of Turkish oppression, to be able to devote much time to such luxuries as athletics. Both government and people are kept too busy in securing means of daily existence to rival closely communities more blest with wealth

and leisure. Greeks will try hard for the prizes; they will doubtless fairly earn some; but if the majority of the victors are not Englishmen it will be from lack of adequate representation. At this writing it is not certain that America will be represented at all.

It is of course unfortunate for us on this side the ocean that the games come at a time when our college athletes can least easily be absent. But the time perfectly suits all Europe, where the Easter vacation is long and universally observed. Then the demands of the climate make the date selected unavoidable. The summer is unbearably warm in Athens, but April is the fairest month of all the year. Cloudless skies of deepest blue, a warm but not depressing temperature, perfection in color and atmosphere, the culmination of beauty in flower and foliage render Athens at that season of all cities most enchanting. Purple mountains and flowery plains, sea and sky of intense and indescribable azure are all full of ravishing delights that inspire, almost intoxicate, the traveler.

It is the purpose of this new movement to revive the genuine old spirit of Olympia, adding to athletics in all nations real elements of life and interest. It is hoped to stem the tide that has been setting so strongly of late toward professionalism and turn it back in the direction of legitimate amateur sport. We in America especially need such an influence. We do our athletics too much by proxy, hiring men to play baseball and football for us while we sit by in ruinous inaction. Even in our colleges but a small fraction of the students take more part in athletics than to pay their subscriptions and attend the games. Every one of our out-of-door sports has been debased to the service of the professional athlete, whose object is to develop not a symmetrical and healthy man, but a distorted animal machine fitted by long training for the performance of this or that particular feat of skill. Athletic and gymnastic sports are absolutely essential to the physical salvation of a race as tensely strung and nervous as Americans, but their renewal and popularity depend on their

rescue from the control of those whose goal is the almighty dollar and not the simple olive branch. When athletics become a trade their influence for good is dead. We in America do not need more hired athletes, but we do need a general revival of interest in out of door sports, an interest that shall be personal and universal, without age limit. The new movement properly managed and adequately supported cannot fail to have a powerful influence in this direction.

But the greatest good of this first meeting of the New Olympic Games will accrue to Greece herself. It will be a great rallying time for the people of Greater Hellas. The inhabitants of the Kingdom of Greece are but a minority of their race. They are less than two and a half millions, while European Turkey has full two millions and Asiatic Turkey almost as many. Crete groaning under Turkish misrule, Cyprus unhappy under even English sovereignty, Chios with Greek affiliations unquenched in the blood of the foulest massacre of modern times, all the islands on Turkey's coast, and sections of Asia Minor, to say nothing of Epirus and Macedonia, are largely, if not predominantly, Greek in language, religion, and interests. In every city of the Mediterranean basin, even in the remote towns of Turkey and southern Russia, are found numerous Greeks. All these are Greek in more than name. They regard themselves, the home-land regards them, all as children of one loving but unfortunate mother.

In the National Assembly that elected the present king to the throne thirty-three years ago, delegates from the Greeks in Constantinople, Odessa, Alexandria, London, and other cities sat side by side with those from Athens and Sparta. Every Greek community of a hundred souls anywhere on the broad earth had the right to send a delegate to that council. No other race remains so faithful to the traditions of its fatherland. Whether in the cities of the Orient, in Western Europe, or in the distant New World, the Greek is still a true son of Hellas. His thoughts and prayers are for her; for her, too, his money if he becomes rich. The numerous fine buildings that are rap-

idly making Athens the handsomest city of the East, for the most part gifts of wealthy Greeks in foreign lands, attest this irradicable love of native land.

Of these absent children thousands will flock to Athens. The sixth of April is the seventy-fifth anniversary of Greek independence, and the fires of patriotism will blaze high in Greek hearts. It will be no strange thing if the Cretan shall go back to his island more than ever intent on revolution; if the Macedonian Greek with eyes more full of longing shall look across the mountains to his happier Thessalian brothers; if the Greeks throughout the sultan's realm shall wait with yet greater impatience for the time to come when the enslaved half of Hellas shall be free.

Superiority of numbers is not the sole claim the Greek has to these large sections of the East. Judged by the standard of intelligence, industry, and force of character, he has still more decided advantage.

These three quarters of a century have wrought marvels with the Greek. Naturally restless he is learning self-control; enthusiastic he is learning patience; yesterday a serf he is to-day learning the arts of democracy, for his government is monarchical in hardly more than name. When the clock shall strike the hour of doom for the Turkish Empire, Greece will be all ready to take the place that is rightfully hers. Epirus, Macedonia, Crete, Cyprus, and parts of Asia justly belong to her. She may fail in her ambition to regain Constantinople, but that city might be in worse hands, and there

might be a worse solution of the eastern question than handing over Turkey in Europe and parts of Asia Minor to the Greeks.

This is not merely the vision of a single enthusiast. All Greeks know that old tradition that Constantinople will again be theirs when a Constantine and a Sophia shall be their sovereigns. When Crown Prince Constantine with his Prussian wife Sophia ascends the throne that condition will be met.

This dream of modern Greeks is not without interest to us. All Philhellenes join in wishing well to the land that is the repository of so many cherished associations. But all who love our civilization and long to see it triumph in the world will watch with keenest interest the gathering crisis in the East. The long-delayed demise of the Sick Man can not be far off. When that shall come will Slav or Greek succeed to his estate? Supremacy of Slavic rule in the East will end forever the dreams of a united and fully liberated Hellas. It will do more. It will replace Turkish barbarity with Slavic intolerance and plunge the East into darkness for another half millenium. Russian rule may be more humane than Turkish; it is not more civilizing.

If these New Olympic Games shall lead to closer contact between Greece and the western nations, give to us a truer estimate of the Greek and a juster conception of his possibilities and rights, and bring to him greater appreciation and emulation of western civilization, we as well as he will be the gainers.

## THE PRINCIPLES WHICH UNDERLIE THE COOKING OF FOOD.

BY PROFESSOR THOMAS GRANT ALLEN, M. A.

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**A** WELL known French chemist, Professor Berthelot, has prophesied that in time, during the next century perhaps, many of the staple foods which we now obtain by natural growth will be produced in factories; that meat, milk, eggs, and flour will, by the methods of synthetic chemistry,

be built up from their elements, carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen. As a result the broad acres which are now devoted to raising wheat and corn and rice will be utilized for other purposes, for flour, meal, and breakfast foods will no longer be grown, but made. Cattle, sheep, and swine will no



longer be raised, for beef, mutton, and pork will then be products of our laboratories.

The land which will then not be needed for the growing of food stuffs will probably come to be divided among the people who now crowd the tenements of our large cities. Every family could then have "three acres of land and a cow" and instead of being choked with gases, blinded with smoke, and offended by vile odors would inhale the pure air of the prairies and enjoy the odors of its anemones and daisies.

That this prophecy may not appear a mere fancy may I remind my readers that our best known American chemist appears to believe with Professor Berthelot that foods will be manufactured, and that considerably cheaper than they now are grown, thereby lessening the struggle for existence. Some foods and food flavors have already been built up from inorganic materials; thus, vanilla, which has always been obtained until recently from the tonka bean is now being displaced by artificial vanillin. Fats have been prepared from their elements and it is pretty well known that sugar, which represents another class of foods, can be prepared from sawdust. "I do not say," says professor Berthelot, "that we shall give you artificial beefsteaks at once, nor do I say that we shall ever give you a beefsteak as we now obtain and cook it. We shall give you the same identical food, however, chemically, digestively, and nutritively speaking. Its form will differ, because it will probably be a tablet. But it will be a tablet of any color and shape that is desired, and will, I think, entirely satisfy the epicurean senses of the future." May I add that perhaps it will also always be tender, and cooking will become so simple that a discussion of the principles which underlie the art will seem superfluous.

Meanwhile for a few years to come we are likely to go on eating the same foods prepared in the same old ways, and so long as we do their proper cooking will be an important factor in rendering them digestible and otherwise fitting them for our use.

Man was at one time, in all probability, a vegetarian, and a very narrow one at that, for his food consisted of fruits and nuts only.

If these were now his only foods, cooking would be unnecessary, but down through the ages he has been experimenting with everything that is edible until now his dietary includes all the varieties to be found in a well-conducted modern grocery and meat market. His experiments have been attended by more or less failure and often with damage to himself, and that in many ways, for the kind of food a man eats influences his character physically, mentally, and morally, more perhaps than we are willing to admit. Man has not only often been imprudent in his choice of food but from ignorance of the relations which should exist between the substances used as food and the structure and wants of his body he has, perhaps, quite as often made mistakes in his methods of cooking.

Let us consider first why we cook our food and then let us discuss in some detail the principles which underlie the application of heat to each of the three principal classes of food substances; viz., the proteids, fats, and carbohydrates.

We cook our food to render it more agreeable to our senses of taste and smell. Cooking develops flavors and odors not present in the raw state. This is particularly true of the animal foods, but it is also true to a greater or less extent with regard to vegetable foods and indeed some vegetables, as potatoes and beans, would be repugnant were they uncooked. The cooking of most foods may be so conducted as to make them more pleasant to look upon, and no doubt this receives considerable attention. We may, therefore, say that cooking renders food more palatable, gives it a more savory odor, and if well done usually renders it more attractive. The superior flavor, appearance, and taste of a piece of beefsteak nicely cooked is a case in point. The development of pleasant flavors in the coffee berry and peanut illustrate the same principle.

A second reason why we should cook our food is to be found in the fact that thereby we facilitate the process of mastication. Some foods are tough or hard and can neither be finely divided nor well mixed with saliva. Cooking softens these so that the

work of the teeth is performed with greater ease, and the results, so far as the digestibility and the amount of nutrient matter obtained are concerned, are vastly more efficient.

Again it is often desirable that the food be chemically changed; thus some foods or portions of them are absolutely indigestible in the uncooked state; the fibrous tissue of meat, for example, can not be considered a food until by the application of heat it has been changed chemically to gelatin. Similarly starches, though not entirely indigestible when raw, are changed into a more digestible form by cooking, and the cooked starch, as in bread, is by the process of toasting converted into a new chemical substance called dextrin, which closely resembles sugar both in its chemical properties and in the ease with which it is digested. Again sugar is changed into caramel and fats are partially decomposed into other more digestible substances.

A fourth reason for cooking food is that the warmth which is thus imparted promotes digestion by causing an increased flow of blood to the digestive apparatus and hence a more copious secretion of the digestive fluids. It is to stimulate the flow of digestive juices that hot soup is given as the first course at dinner. As a result of this increased flow the digestion of the food is well advanced by the time dinner is over. The general stimulating effect of tea and coffee is enhanced considerably by their warmth.

The general result of all these changes mentioned, the development of flavor, the increased ease of mastication, the chemical changes, and the warmth imparted by cooking, is that more nutrient matter is obtained from the food at the same time that its digestion is promoted.

Finally, cooking destroys any parasites that may be present in the food. Of these, *trichina* in pork and the *scolex*, or encysted head of the tapeworm, in what is known as measly beef, are the most common. To show that these are not so rare I may mention that between two and three per cent of all the hogs slaughtered at the Chicago stock yards are found to be infected with *trichina*.

Most food materials serve as favorable media for the propagation and growth of bacteria. Many of these are harmless, but we must remember that we cannot be sure at any time that no dangerous ones are present. As heat destroys bacteria we are taking fewer chances when we cook our food than when we do not. The principal source of evil is not the presence of bacteria themselves but the chemical products which they form, the ptomaines, leucomaines and toxalbumins. If these have been formed in the foods before heat is applied, cooking will not materially alter the poisonous nature of such food. Further, there are some foods which we do not desire to cook. For these reasons it is absolutely essential that we keep the food material, the kitchen, and everything with which the food can come in contact, and by which it might become contaminated, scrupulously clean.

Having now considered why we cook, let us next consider how we cook, and then let us discuss the principles embodied in the method. And, first, as a type of the proteids let us study the cooking of meat.

The cooking of meat is accomplished in at least four different ways: by the application of heat through the medium of water, by baking or roasting, by broiling, and by frying.

Of the first of these methods there are at least three modifications; viz., boiling, soup making, and stewing. In the first the object is to retain in the meat as nearly as possible all the nutritive qualities and natural flavor. In the making of soups, broths, and gravies the object is to separate as completely as possible all the juices from the meat. Perhaps the making of beef tea, in which only some of the juices of the meat are desired, should be classed with soup making. In stewing, which is a combination of these two methods, a part only of the juice is extracted and served with the meat.

The principle upon which we rely for the accomplishment of our purpose in each case is based upon the fact that albumen is fluid and soluble below 134° F. but becomes solid and insoluble above 160° F.

You can illustrate this by a simple experi-

ment. Place a little of the white of egg in a test tube or beaker containing water. The white of egg is principally albumen and water, indeed albumen is a Latin translation of the common name *the white*. If the mixture of egg and water be now stirred for a minute you will soon be unable to distinguish the egg from the water, for it will have become dissolved in it. Now insert a thermometer in the tube and place it in a larger vessel containing water and gradually heat this. When the thermometer shows that the temperature of the solution in the tube has risen to 134° F. white threads of albumen will begin to appear within it; these will increase in size and number until a temperature of 160° F. is attained, when the whole of the dissolved albumen will become white and opaque. It is now coagulated and may be called solid. If we now examine some of the result we shall find that the albumen thus only just coagulated is a tender, delicate, jelly-like substance, having every appearance to touch, sight, and taste of being easily digestible. And this we find to be the case. Now continue to heat the albumen until 212° is reached and then maintain it at this temperature for a while. It will dry, and become hard and shrunken. If the temperature be carried a little higher the albumen becomes converted into a hard, tough cement.

This experiment teaches us that the temperature for coagulation or cooking of albumen is not that of boiling, 212° F., but 160°, or 52° below. Since the albumin of meat is like this albumen of egg, does not this experiment also illustrate the difference between a "tender, juicy steak, rounded or plumped out in the middle, and a tough, leathery abomination that has been cooked so as to cause it to shrivel and curl up"?

Remembering now what has been said in regard to the end which it is desired to obtain in each of the methods of cooking in water, let us see how we are practically to apply this principle. It must be remembered that the albumin of meat is a liquid like the white of egg and can be dissolved out by cold water just as you have seen the white of egg. If it is, therefore, desired to

retain as completely as possible all the nutrient juices as well as the volatile substances to which meat owes its flavor and stimulating properties, it will be at once apparent that an impervious case must be formed around the piece of meat to be cooked at the outset of the operation. This is accomplished by at once immersing the piece of meat in hot water, and causing the water to boil for about seven minutes. The addition of salt assists the boiling water in forming a case of coagulated albumin which prevents the escape of the juices from the meat. After this brief period of exposure to a high temperature, the water should be allowed to cool to about 160° F. and this temperature maintained until the meat has been cooked. This does not mean that the meat be allowed to simmer, for as you can easily show by a thermometer there is practically no difference between the temperature of boiling water and simmering. All that is required is that the interior of the piece of meat should reach and be kept at a temperature of 160° F. for some time.

With the low temperature the time required for cooking is longer, but the results are better. The meat is more tender, more digestible, and has a better flavor. The retention of the flavor is explained by the formation of the case of coagulated albumin, the tenderness by the experiment with the egg, and the increased digestibility is owing to the fact that none of the fibers have been shrunken or hardened.

The only practical difficulty in this method of cooking is the maintenance of a constant low temperature. Numerous devices have been adopted to secure this end, but of these only the merest mention can be made. A simple but rather imperfect method is to lower the gas flame. If we have a convenient thermometer the temperature could be easily regulated. Another method is to use the *bain-marie*, which is simply a small, thin saucepan suspended in a larger one adapted for the fire and containing water which when boiling or nearly so suffices to heat to a few degrees below its own temperature the contents of the inner vessel. This resembles the method on which the carpen-

ter's glue pot is constructed, with which most persons are familiar. Perhaps the most efficient piece of apparatus for this purpose is that known as the Aladdin oven, designed and thoroughly tested by Mr. Edward Atkinson, the well known economist. The essential principles in its construction are two: first, the sides of the oven are made of some non-conducting material, as wood pulp or *papier-maché*, thus preventing waste of heat, and second, the heat is supplied by means of an oil lamp or gas, in either case the amount supplied being always under the control of the cook.

In making soups, broths, or gravies the meat should be immersed in cold or tepid water and the temperature slowly raised to about 170° F.

In the preparation of beef tea and *bouillon* the water should have a temperature above 134°, as this prevents the escape of albumin.

In stewing, the temperature of the water should be kept between 134° and 180° F. Below 134° albumin would escape from the meat. It is this which forms the scum and which often is foolishly thrown away. Above 180° it would be rendered hard and tough. A considerable portion of the nutritive matters of the meat by this method escapes into the surrounding liquid, but as it is served with the meat there is no loss and stewing is therefore an economical and quite popular method of cooking meat.

Most people prefer to have the flavors and juice retained in the meat, and the method of cooking which best accomplishes this is that known as roasting or baking. In the ordinary oven the cooking is effected by radiated heat and by heated air. In order to retain the juices as completely as possible the roast is first exposed to a strong heat, either by having the oven hot or better, perhaps, by searing the surfaces in a very hot frying pan. By this method the surface is coagulated, water is evaporated, and a sort of crust is formed which presents a barrier to the subsequent escape of the juice. As soon as this crust is formed cooking may proceed slowly at a lower temperature, for this method best secures tender, unshrunk, unhardened, muscular fiber. The gravy is

formed of the melted fat together with some of the juice which we cannot altogether prevent escaping and a small quantity of gelatin which is formed when the temperature is long continued. The basting with this gravy is an important part of the process as it tends to diffuse the heat uniformly over the roast, prevents scorching, and such hardening of the surface as would cause it to crack and permit the escape of flavor. Not only does roasting retain all the natural flavors of the meat, but the dry heat browns the surface and develops several new substances which have agreeable odors and pleasant tastes characteristic of roasted meat. A pan of water placed in the oven underneath the roast performs, to some extent, the same work as the basting, and prevents the melted fat from decomposing and yielding disagreeable odors.

Broiling, or grilling, being a process of cooking either by radiation of heat from an open fire or by bringing the meat in contact with a hot surface, is almost the same as roasting, only this method is applied to smaller portions of meat. The pieces should not exceed from three fourths to an inch in thickness. The surfaces are quickly sealed. The interior can then be cooked at a lower temperature either by removing the piece farther from the fire if it be coals or by turning the flame lower if the source of heat be gas. The juices thus expanded and unable to escape render the piece full and plump. Broiling develops a very fine flavor and is rapid and convenient.

Frying is a method of cooking meat very generally condemned and justly so, owing to the fact that by this method the meat is rendered much less digestible. As the meat is usually cut into thin slices and then cooked by the application of heat through hot fat or oil it is apt to become more or less saturated with grease. This renders it less permeable to the digestive juices. Again fatty acids developed by the action of the high temperature on the fat are apt to lead to disturbance of the digestive process. The fat should be at a pretty high temperature in order that the juices of the meat may be retained and that the meat may absorb as little grease as possible.



If the surface of the meat be covered with flour, bread crumbs, or egg, less of the fat is absorbed by the meat and the objectionable results which usually attend this method of cooking are to some extent obviated.

Fish is baked, broiled, fried, or boiled. I use the last term advisedly, for indeed fish ought never to be cooked in boiling water. Not even the preliminary boiling for a few minutes, as in meats, should be attempted, if the fish has been cut into slices, for there is always danger of the fish going to pieces. The superficial albumin can be coagulated at a temperature lower than the boiling point. The time required is less than that for meat and the harder the water in which it is cooked the firmer is the flesh and the better does it retain its flavor.

By the time-honored method of cooking eggs, three and a half minutes in boiling water, the white is usually hard and indigestible and the yolk soft and underdone. If, instead, the eggs are placed in boiling water just sufficient to cover them and then the vessel set back for from twelve to twenty minutes, the white will be just nicely cooked and the yolk will be firmer than the white.

It is claimed by some that cheese when cooked is more digestible than the uncooked article.

The proteid of peas and beans is very difficult of digestion in the raw state. Long and thorough cooking is necessary to render these satisfactory articles of diet.

With regard to the cooking of fats little can be said. It is believed that partial dissociation takes place owing to the high and somewhat long-continued temperature. The fat becomes granular and is more easily digested. If, however, the chemical change be complete the fat is decomposed into fatty acid and glycerin, and the fatty acid will be apt to cause trouble.

We come now to consider the cooking of carbohydrates. The foods which contain them in quantity are vegetable, and the most common carbohydrate is starch. The starch which we find in seeds and tubers has been placed there to serve as a store of food for the young plant when it begins to grow the next spring. As it must withstand the cold of the winter

season it is laid up in a dry, compact form and surrounded by hard walls of cellulose. In order that the starch grains may be used as food for man not only must the walls be ruptured but the grains themselves must be made soluble. Cooking of starch accomplishes these two changes, the starch combining with water to form a starch paste. It is this paste which is employed in the thickening of gravies, sauces, etc., by adding flour. In addition to these changes the application of dry heat to starch effects a chemical change, as in the formation of sugar and caramel in bread crust and in toast.

In the cooking of potatoes and other vegetables containing starch and cellulose, not only is the starch cooked but the cellulose is softened so that it is less irritating to the digestive tract and in some cases, as in asparagus, it is digested.

The vegetables are particularly rich in mineral matters, but when cooked in boiling water these are dissolved out and the liquid containing them is frequently thrown away. This ought not to be. By boiling or baking potatoes in their jackets not only are these salts retained but more agreeable flavors are developed than when the jackets have been removed.

Bread seems to be the best form in which starch can be taken as food, for in the light, spongy, porous condition of the loaf a large surface is presented to the action of the digestive juices.

This porous condition of the loaf is brought about by means of a fermentation in which the yeast plant is the active agent. The chemical changes involved in the fermentation are the conversion of a small portion of the starch of the flour into sugar and the further changes of the sugar into two new substances one of which is alcohol and the other a gas known as carbon dioxide. The gas is entangled by the tenacious gluten and the porous sponge is the result.

Kneading gives elasticity to the dough, breaks up the bubbles, and distributes them evenly through the mass.

The temperature most favorable to fermentation is between 70° and 90° F. Above 90° a second fermentation would begin and



change the alcohol to an acid, which would make the bread sour.

Baking destroys the yeast plant before this secondary fermentation begins, cooks the starch and gluten, expands the gas, drives off the alcohol, and forms a pleasant crust.

The interior of the loaf is cooked at the temperature of boiling water and the oven must, therefore, be maintained at a temperature high enough to accomplish this. The most favorable temperature, according to Mrs. Ellen H. Richards of the Boston Institute of Technology, is from 400° to 550° F.

Water, which when changed to steam has

expanded to seventeen hundred times its volume, has something to do with the raising of pastry and crackers.

Cakes are frequently made light and porous by the expansion of air which has been entangled in whipped eggs and then mixed with the flour.

In what is known as aerated bread the gas is prepared in suitable vessels and then forced into the dough. When baking powder is used for the same purpose the gas is generated in the dough by the chemical change which takes place when the principal constituents of the baking powder are brought into solution.

## MILITARY BANDS OF EUROPE.

BY S. PARKES CADMAN.

THE leading bands of European armies are those of the Household Brigade of Great Britain, including the Grenadier, Coldstreams, and Scots Guards (infantry), the Life Guards (two regiments) and

the band of the Garde Republicaine, Austria the Imperial Guards' Band, Turkey an organization attached to the Ottoman palace, and Russia rejoices in the Czar's regiment of Guards, whose musicians delight the St.



THE SCOTS GUARDS' BAND.

the Royal Horse Guards Blue (cavalry), the Royal Artillery and Royal Marine Bands, and that of the Engineers. Germany has the Kaiser Franz Grenadier Regimental Band, Belgium that of the Guides, France

Petersburg citizens with rich, highly colored national music.

Of course this enumeration does not profess to include many other deservedly popular and standard brass and reed orchestras,

F-Apr.

and considering that in Great Britain alone there are over forty thousand military bands, while France, Austria, Germany, and Belgium are equally prolific in this respect, a detailed survey of genuinely excellent bands is simply impossible here.

The two leading bands of Europe to-day—which met in honorable rivalry at the French Exhibition in London during the summer and fall of 1890—are those of the Grenadier Guards of England, conducted by the world-famed bandmaster the Hon. Lieut. Dan Godfrey, and the Garde Republicaine of France, conducted by M. Wettge. Both are composed of picked men, artists who have served a long apprenticeship in other bands previous to being honored and gratified by being called to join these. And when upon state occasions, such as the trooping of the colors on the

queen's birthday, the Guards' bands of the Grenadiers, Coldstreams, and Scots Fusiliers are massed together for combined effort, or the full complement of the Garde Republicaine is pouring forth glorious melody under the trees of Paris' great parks and gardens, one can fully understand how it comes to

pass that their fame has extended so widely.

Our American orchestra conducted by M. Sousa is avowedly an imitation of the great French band. And our readers will look upon Lieutenant Godfrey's face with some

interest when they recall the fact that he brought his band to the grand international musical festival held in Boston during the year 1872. This was the first time an English soldier had appeared in uniform in America since the days of 1812-16. Questions were asked in Parliament as to the advisability of the step, and a special act by that august body was necessary to enable the band to leave the country. Belonging as it does to the personal establishment of the sovereign, Victoria could have done us no greater honor than to send to us, clad in bearskin and resplendent scarlet and gold, her favorite musicians.



DRUM MAJOR, COLDSTREAM GUARDS' BAND.

Before dwelling on the Godfreys and the Guards, two names inseparably associated in the history of military music, allow me to quote from a Boston paper for June 19, 1872, concerning this well-remembered visit to our shores:

"The greatest sensation of the day and of the

occasion was reserved, however, for the Grenadier Guards' Band—a sensation which had a most substantial basis in sound musical judgment. The appearance of the band in its really splendid and elegant uniform was quite enough of itself to fire the popular heart and to account, with the added consideration of hospitable friendliness of feeling, for their welcome. But long before they had finished their opening overture it was felt that no such military band had ever been heard in the United States."

I forbear to quote more. Doubtless the memorable scene when Mr. Dan Godfrey signaled his men to play "The Star Spangled Banner" still lives in the recollection of Bostonians who were fortunate enough to be present. It literally beggared description. The popular enthusiasm of thousands in the audience was sustained by the rarer zest of the foreign orchestras, and amid a hurricane of applause Mr. Godfrey's band accomplished more for the cementing of good feeling between two great nations than many a tedious period of diplomacy has done. The palm of supremacy was unanimously awarded to the English band. "It was the triumph of my life," said Mr. Godfrey to me this summer, "and I often play your national hymn at my *al fresco* concerts during the season. My remembrance of America is of the kindest nature."

The history of the Godfrey family is very largely the history of the advance of military music throughout the English-speaking world. Their names are familiar to every lover of music. Who has not heard of the father, his three sons, and their sons in turn? Their selections, arrangements, compositions, waltzes, marches, and galops are played

by every band of repute throughout Europe, America, and Australia.

When the elder Godfrey died he left three sons in his family who inherited his fame, Dan, Charles, and Fred. They each conducted a Guards' band, and while Mr. Fred is now deceased, his brothers, Dan and Charles, continue to be the premier bandmasters of the British queen and nation, possessing the finest infantry and cavalry bands respectively of the army, and some critics say of the world.

In a recent interview Lieutenant Godfrey stated that he was born in 1831 and graduated at the Royal Academy of Music, where he is now a professor. On July 2, 1856, he was appointed to the Grenadiers by His Royal Highness the Prince Consort, Albert the Good. "Never," said Mr. Godfrey, "shall I forget my first day's duty. The troops were



PIPER, SCOTS GUARDS' BAND.

returning from the Crimean War and I composed a march in honor of the auspicious hour. Not a dry eye could be seen as we wended our way through the crowded Strand."

Referring to his American visit Mr. Godfrey continued: "I think we may claim to have prevented a terrible calamity while out there. It was the last day of the exhibition and some twelve thousand people were in the building where a stand had been fitted up for the use of the band. Suddenly a thunderstorm burst over the place. The lightning tore open the roof and clouds of sand were whirled around the auditorium like smoke. The Guards were playing the overture to 'Zampa.' Hundreds of people arose to their feet in dismay. Somebody called 'Fire!'; there was a rush—

when it occurred to me to stop the band, and in another moment we struck up 'The Star Spangled Banner.' The effect was instantaneous and everybody quieted down."

During the evening the writer listened to this band they played the following program:

BAND OF H. M. GRENADEER GUARDS.

(By permission of Colonel Oliphant.)

- 1.—COMMANDEUR-MARSH.....Kosubek
- 2.—SELECTION....."Orfeo".....Gluck
- 3.—WALZER....."Meerleuchten".....Ziehrer
- 4.—MOTET....."Hear my Prayer".....Mendelssohn  
(Cornet Solo—Sergeant Knight.)
- 5.—MINUET FROM 1ST SYMPHONY.....Beethoven
- 6.—SELECTION....."Der Vogelhändler".....Zeller  
(Performed in London by the Saxe Coburg Opera Company.)
- 7.—VORSPIEL....."Die Meistersinger von Nürnberg".....Wagner
- 8.—SELECTION....."The Shop Girl".....Caryll

Conductor - LIEUT. DAN GODFREY.

The feature of the performance was the magnificent cornet playing of Sergeant Knight, whose rendition of the motet from Mendelssohn provoked a positive sensation among the throngs around the stand. In a

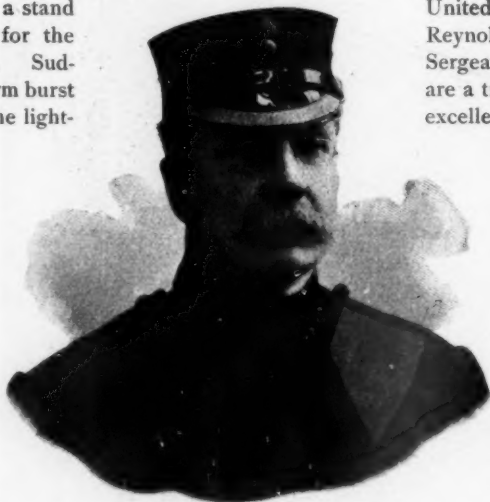
band of sixty or more performers, every man an artist of repute and a soloist upon his particular instrument, Mr. Knight stands out prominently for a purity and delicacy of tone and correctness of phrasing which make his playing a rare treat afforded by complete musical culture.

The Guards have produced many famous players. Jules Levy, who is now in the United States, and Howard Reynolds, together with Sergeant Charles Knight, are a trio of cornetists unexcelled the world over.

Mr. Lazarus, Mr. Willman, and Mr. Pollard were equally good upon the clarinet. Mr. McGrath is the best trumpet player in England to-day. Mr. Bourne and Mr. Phasey, euphonium players, are both recently deceased. I shall not easily forget hearing Mr.

Bourne play a favorite solo of his, "O ruddier than the cherry," an aria from Handel, at the Crystal Palace, London, in the year 1889.

These gentlemen were and are the leading instrumentalists in organizations which maintain supremacy because the material is so good, and this remark applies to both instruments and men. If it is the dream of the French conscript that some morning he may awake to find a marshal's baton in his knapsack, it is equally the dream of the young English bandsman that some day he will be in the Guards. He will serve ten years in another regiment and forfeit all this time and its pension in order that he may don the bearskin, the scarlet, and the gold, and march to St. James with the Grenadiers, the Coldstreams, and the Scots. He is allowed to reside out of barracks, to wear civilian dress, and to take other en-



LIEUT. DAN GODFREY, BANDMASTER GRENADEER GUARDS.

gements than those pertaining to duty. Many of the gentlemen in London orchestras appear at night in faultless evening dress and parade the following morning in the elaborately laced and epauleted tunics of these regiments.

A comparison of the playing of the English and German Guards' bands shows the superior orchestral properties of the former. The German bands which visited the Chicago Worlds' Fair evoked comment on their unbalanced and brassy tone, fanfare-like, and lacking even formation. The English Guards are distinctly more refined, and with wonderful attack, rhythm, and almost overwhelming crescendo movements there is linked artistic taste and sweetness. In fact, the shading of the reeds is equal to that of a skillful stringed orchestra, deftness and purity and every change of subtle tone being evidenced with absolute faultlessness. I am of the opinion that if Sousa or Victor Herbert could arrange a musical festival, as the late Mr. Gilmore did in '72, the verdict then given would not be very seriously threatened, save by that truly superb body of players the band of the Garde Republicaine.

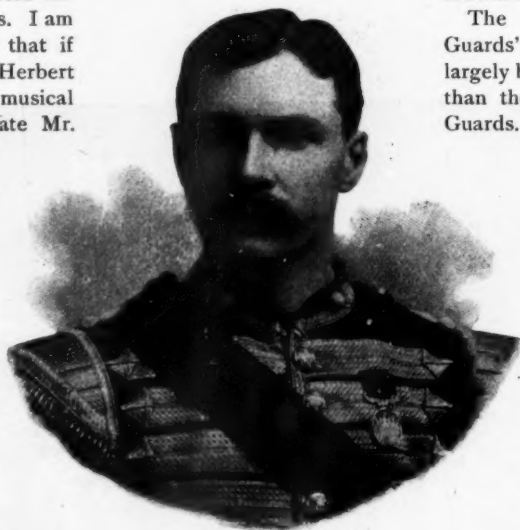
The Austrian capital is the home of the *walzer*, and the Strauss Orches-

tra has won there and throughout Europe and America a singular reputation for dance music. The military bands of Austria and Russia, too, are very superior for musical quality, but they do not rank with the Belgian Guides or those before mentioned. Here is the makeup of the Coldstream Band, conducted by Mr. Cad-

wallader Thomas, a pupil of the late Fred Godfrey. This band consists of one bandmaster, two sergeants, two corporals, and forty musicians; total, forty-five. They play upon two flutes, one piccolo, one oboe, two Eb clarionets, thirteen Bb clarionets, three bassoons, four horns, three euphoniums, three basses, six cornets, four trombones, and two drums, giving twenty-two reed, twenty brass, and two percussion instruments. In 1785 the band consisted of twelve German musicians enlisted in the king's domain of Hanover. They performed upon four clarionets, two bassoons, two oboes, two French horns, one trumpet, and one serpent. Then came three Africans who carried tambourines and bells.

For fifty-one years the father of Lieut. Dan Godfrey conducted the Coldstreams, and after he died his second son, Fred, took his place until 1880.

The Royal Horse Guards' Band is more largely brass and less reed than those of the Foot Guards. The mounted player must be skillful indeed to manage a reed instrument and a horse in a crowded thoroughfare at one and the same time. Mr. Charles Godfrey, the brother of the lieutenant and a fellow of the Royal Academy of Music, told me that his men



SERGEANT CHARLES KNIGHT, SOLO CORNETTIST, GRENADEER GUARDS' BAND.

have to do double duty, as a mounted and a dismounted band. "Besides, I have in my band," continued he, "five men who can play the violin, one player for the viola, two altos, three contra-basses, and a pianist."

The hereditary musical gift is abundantly manifest in Mr. Charles Godfrey. His style in conducting, his reading of the most diffi-



cult passages, and the control he exercises over an orchestra have called forth the praises of many critics. His arrangements for bands, if tabulated, would fill some pages of this magazine. Among the best known let me mention some overtures: "Ruy Blas" (*Mendelssohn*), "Raymond" (*Thomas*), "Due d'Olowne" (*Auber*), and "Macbeth" (*Halton*). Verdi's "Nabucodonosor," "Faust," by Gounod, Spohr's "Last Judgment," "La Gazza Ladra," by Rossini, and "The Flying Dutchman," by Wagner, are also among the selections arranged by Mr. Godfrey.

He has a son—Charles III. we may call him to avoid confusion—who conducts the Crystal Palace Military Band, which he has caused to rank next to the crack regimental bands of the world.

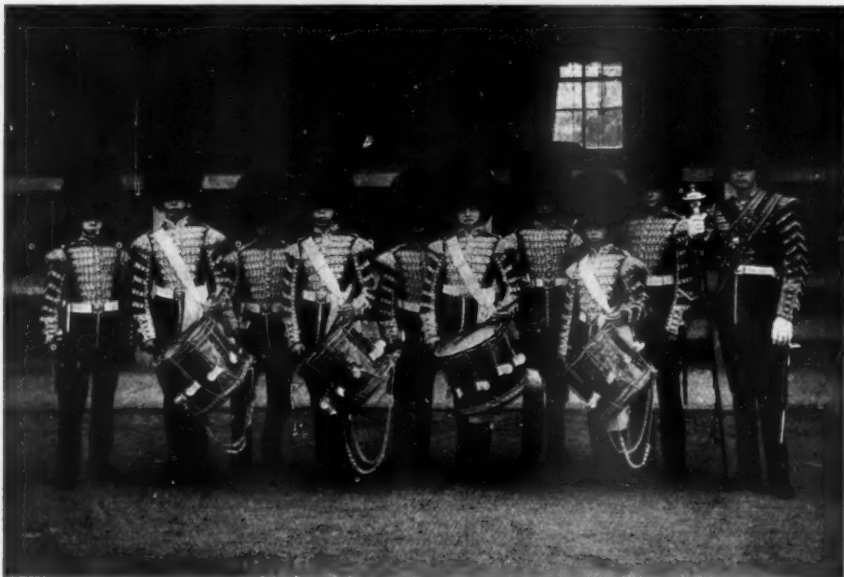
The program the Horse Guards Blue played at the Horticultural Fête at the old border town of Shrewsbury in August of '95 drew together sixty thousand people. The last number, a rhapsodical symphony by

BAND OF H. M. ROYAL HORSE GUARDS.  
(BLUE.)

(By permission of Colonel Brocklehurst.)

- 1.—MARCH ..... "La Sortie de la Garde" ..... *Eilenberg*
- 2.—OVERTURE ..... "Ariadne" ..... *Kling*
- 3.—SELECTION .. "The Flying Dutchman" ..... *Wagner*
- 4.—NORWEGIAN DANCE ..... ..... *Greig*
- 5.—SACRED SONG ..... "Ave Maria" ..... *Mascheroni*  
(Cornet—Mr. Windscheffel.)
- 6.—SELECTION .... "Hansel und Gretel" .... *Humperdinck*
- 7.—PICCOLO SOLO ... "The Lilliputian" ..... *Brewer*  
(Piccolo—Mr. Gattridge.)
- 8.—MAZURKA ..... "La Mousmé" ..... *Ganne*
- 9.—RHAPSODIE ..... "Pester Carnival" ..... *Liszt*  
Conductor - - Charles Godfrey, R. A. M.

The duties of these bands of the Household Brigade, attached as they are to the court, bring them in contact with the queen and the royal family almost constantly. Lieutenant Godfrey says that Her Majesty is attached to the German School of music, especially Mozart and the earlier composers. Scotch music, like all things Scotch, is also in favor, the overture to "Ruy Blas" being a pet selection of Queen Victoria's. Every program played in her castle or palaces is submitted to her for approval, and it is no unusual thing for Her Majesty to spend some time in the quadrangle at Windsor and



DRUM AND FIFE CORPS, GRENADIER GUARDS.

Liszt, formed a suitable *finale* to a rendering of the whole which placed it above criticism. The following is the program:

speaking a few words of approval to the bandmaster. She made Dan Godfrey a lieutenant, and he is the first bandmaster to receive

the rank of commissioned officer in the British Army.

The Royal Albert Hall is a favorite resort for popular concerts in London. In one evening you may hear the band of Sir Charles Halle, the songs of Sims Reeves, Madame Albani, Madame Sterling, and many another luminary—the whole for twenty-four cents in the gallery, fifty cents in the main auditorium, and a dollar in the boxes. Think of this rich feast within the reach of a poor music-loving theological student resident in London and you will not wonder that I often left Paley, Descarte, Butler, Meyer, and John Wesley to take care of themselves while

I drank deep and drank again and came away athirst for more, and thanked heaven for the only ministry through the senses to the spirit which does not necessarily end in sensualizing the spirit—for the divine gift of music.

The Royal Artillery Regiment, like those of the Marines and Engineers, is both a military and a string band. Every member has to be "double handed," to use a technical expression. To-day he may march through the streets of Woolwich, Chatham, or Plymouth, playing a march from Eilenberg; to-morrow he will be seated in a palatial drawing room or behind banks of exotics in royal houses or on the stages of great cen-

ters such as the Albert Hall, interpreting the deepest emotions and most harmonious splendor of Meyerbeer, Wagner, Dvorak, and Sullivan.



CORNET AND EUPHONIUM PLAYERS, SCOTS GUARDS' BAND.

Mr. Kappey, until recently the conductor of the Chatham division of Royal Marines, has been known for many years as an authority on all pertaining to military music. A scholar, historian, antiquarian, and passionate lover of his profession, he was long and worthily recognized as technically in the front rank. He traces the history of trombones from Egypt and Greece and states the reasons for the employment of the brass and reed instruments in a band; he knows their tone and quality and

the combined effect of them all. Flutes, oboes, saxophones, cornets, and French horns are his intimate friends. Whenever the Marine Bands, four in number, are advertised to give a performance they are sure of an audience. Mr. Winterbottom, the bandmaster of the Plymouth division, was kind enough to send me his photograph and a history of his family. His principal instrument is the *cello*, a genuine Joseph Guarnerius, as he states with commendable pride. His uncles William and John were both bandmasters in the Guards and Marine Artillery, and he has followed in their steps by establishing in Plymouth some delightful symphony concerts held during the winter.

"I played last year with my soldier boys, and their string and reed and brass combined the following selections," said Mr. Winterbottom: "'Anacreon,' 'Fingal's Cave,' 'Leonore,' and 'Don Juan,' overtures; the 'Vorspiel' from 'Tristan and Isolde'; 'Norwegian Melodies' by Grieg; the 'Pastorale' and 'Oxford' symphonies; Brahms' No. 2., Schumann's No. 3., and Beethoven's No. 8., 'Extracts'; among 'Suites', those of Grieg ('Peer Gynt'), Mackenzie ('Rhapsodie Eccosassé'), and the 'Siefried Idyll' by Wagner."

These speak for themselves, and as work done by military bandsmen are simply admirable, needing no note and comment. Contrast them with the blare-away vulgarities raked from the lower schools of music performed by the average brass band and one may see at a glance how the possibilities of bandsmen can be most wonderfully advanced.

Auerbach well said that "music washes away from the soul the dust of everyday life." In the last half of the eighteenth century these orchestras were attached to the retinues of great monarchs and lordly

earls. To-day they are common property. The popular taste for music is so cultivated by a good band that you cannot make the musicians walk one way and the crowd go in the opposite direction. For recreation, culture, and uplifting influences among

men who toil daily, little outside of religious exercises can compare with the knowledge of instrumental music. There is no doubt that the source of attraction at Hugh Price Hughes' services in London does not consist solely in the preaching of Mr. Hughes; many are drawn thither by Heath Mills and his orchestral concert by sixty performers.

But superb military music, resonant and yet mellow, graceful as well as powerful, uniting sweetness, light, shade, majesty, and force, is not the product of a moment. It has taken one hundred and fifty years of toil unmitigated and arduous, in workshops where instru-

ments are made, in band rooms where artists are trained, and by every aid, mechanical, professional, public, and private, to evolve a band such as the English Guards or the Garde Republicaine.



DRUM MAJOR, SCOTS GUARDS' BAND.

## A LOYAL LOVER.

BY JOHN EDGEWORTH.

"A love large as life, deep and changeless as death."

—*Lucile.*

### I.

IT was at Antibes, in the Café de Provence, that I first saw him. I had so-journed in the south of France, veiling under the pretext of artistic studying and sketching a desire to escape from my friends, with a great grief which craved the solace not of sympathy but of solitude. I sought in nature the renewal of energies lavished with profusion in the violent emotions of a serious crisis of my life.

I had wandered leisurely along the coasts of the Mediterranean, through that famous valley which lies between the blue Cévennes and the white Alps, from Perpignan to Nice. The charm of its clement yet radiant skies; its tropic luxuriance of palm and olive and vine and rose, with scattered forests, on the slopes, of oak and pine; its majestic cliffs of porphyry alternating with long, low, sandy shores, golden yellow; its turquoise sea, melting and mingling with a sapphire sky; and its stirring histories suggested at every turn by antique castles and churches and, older yet, the ruins of Roman times,—all this beauty and poetry awoke in me a sense of peace. I mused of the generations which from remotest times had here lived out their destiny, until my sorrow merged in the "fellowship of universal suffering." I lost the egoism of grief. My life appeared as but

"Brief rest upon the turning billow's height."

And this calm of mind invited deeper thoughts. The glory of the world in its fairest aspects persuaded me that "nature at heart is very pitiful." Then my spirit groped after Him who is above this pagantry of history and nature, in eternal peace, until at last I caught glimpses of the Father's face, behind "the mask eternal love doth wear."

I was cured, but tarried still in this hospital of the heart—this *hotel-Dieu* of my

moral maladies,—and finally established myself at Antibes, a secluded little city which has all the charm of Cannes with a quaint beauty of its own. The days, hardly noted and counted, were occupied in excursions amid the olive groves and vineyards or to the inland villages which nestle in the Alpine foothills or along the precipitous shores of the promontory of La Garroupe, terminating each evening at the modest Café de Provence. And it was there, and thus prepared in sentiment to meet him, that I saw my "lover."

I had entered earlier than my wont, at an hour when the little *café* was full of gay diners and every table on its broad, vine-shaded esplanade was occupied. It was the superb calm of the day's afterglow, when the sun had sunk beyond the mountains and the twilight lingered in the vales beneath.

He passed close by me, and the casual glance which noted his entrance was quickened to steady regard, at his aspect and its inaptness to the gay quality of the scene and to the deference of the *garçon*, who welcomed him with bows and smiles at a table standing apart in a corner of the room. It had been reserved. It was beside a window that opened on the fragrant courtyard of the house. It was spread for one guest alone. It was adorned with a great bowl of Provence roses. The guest thus honored, who returned Jean's greeting with a grave courtesy, was tall and spare, but vigorous. His face was that of a dreamer, save for the firm closure of the straight, strong mouth, which argued well for his persistency. The brow was high, narrow, and deeply marked by lines which curved from the temples to converge in a depression between the eyes. These were full of severe but thwarted thought, a dumb, vague longing, and an old, habitual pain. He was clothed in worn but neat garments of unusual style. The long coat, but-

toned close to the neck, with its line of white collar, was yet suggestive of neither the soldier's frock nor the priest's cassock. His meal was so frugal—bread, a bit of cheese, olives, and coffee—that I wondered at the care with which he was served.

My curiosity was piqued, and when he retired I looked about for Madame Duschene, the buxom, bustling landlady of the *café*. She would sometimes do me the honor deftly to arrange the dishes of my meal. And after she had discovered, by delicate advances, that I was not averse to her cheery talk she would pause and regale me between *entrée* and salad, or in coffee time, with naïve and piquant bits of character sketching. Let it not be maligned as gossip, this witty, kindly, graceful chat, so instinct with generous sympathies. In this way I had made acquaintance, avoiding the discomforts of familiarity, with the *habitués* of the place, and in fact with the inhabitants generally of the village and its vicinage. And so when Madame came that day with the usual flask of wine and my box of American cigars I asked her who and what the man might be. She smiled and shrugged her shoulders with an indescribable air of tenderness as she said:

"Alas! M'sieur, it is a story very sad. He is called M. Beguin. He was of this village when I came. It is five—near six years now. And for longer he has lodged above the shop of Michel, the jeweler, in the Rue Marseilles."

"Has he no family—no friends here?" I asked.

"Not of this place," she answered. "Here he is always lonely. And no one knows whence he came. He is absent sometimes for weeks, and always in June. Without one word, he goes—he comes again."

"What is his profession," I asked. "How does he live?"

"He has none," said Madame. "He is not of the rich—no! Yet he has friends, though he knows it not. Money comes to Michel, who now and again places the coins in his desk with what may be there, and he knows not. He is scrupulous, but has no suspicion. And, yes—often the very same

franc pieces come back to Michel when the rent is due. M. Beguin is oblivious. He believes that all he has earned. He sells the papers."

"What!" I exclaimed, "he peddles papers?"

"Yes, each day he visits the hotels and the gardens with the newspapers from Nice, from Marseilles—yes, even from Paris, and they say from England as well. And the people buy. You should see. It is with the grand air he supplies his patrons."

"Poor fellow, he must be demented."

"But truly not so bad as that. He is *tête montée*; but so silent, so docile. He is ever as you see."

"But," I queried, "can nothing be learned of his past life? It is pitiable that he should be alone in this way. His friends should be sought out."

"True, M'sieur, but how? Michel and the *curé* have striven, but now long since have ceased to search. They believe that he was once the *pasteur* of a Reformed Church, and was crazed by the death of his wife. Ah, the poor man! God called her. It does not seem that was good; but—yes, we must still believe. To think—such devotion, such desolation, such fidelity! 'Tis celestial, and all the world loves him—the poor, grand lover who can never forget."

Madame's story appeared to me fanciful. It was evidently conjectural. She admitted that it was pieced out of undesigned allusions which had escaped Beguin from time to time. Yet there were in the man's face vestiges of a mystery and a tragedy. I pursued my inquiries.

"He seems to have been a man of intelligence?"

"But yes, the *curé* has learned by some chance word that he was a scholar who composed books, and asserts that he must have been an orator superb. But now, ah, it is a grand ruin."

"He visits the *café*?" I asked.

"Yes, he dines here—*ciel*! if it can be called thus. You saw. And I fear often it is the sole meal of the day. We do him honor. We hope it may soothe him a little. He does not make conversation. Sometimes



he smiles—ah, so sad—when he sees the roses of Provence.”

This story filled every cranny of my idle brain with teasing curiosity. How much was true in this narrative of dubious fragments—part broken facts, part vague surmises? Could such an intellect be wrecked by a common sorrow? Was he not superior even yet to his menial occupation? If so what was the motive of his conduct? What meant the frequent absences—these mysterious comings and goings? Whence came the money which he used so nonchalantly? Decidedly I would cultivate this M. Beguin.

But I found this difficult. Every evening I visited the *café* at his hour. I studied him sedulously, as an alluring but evasive problem, yet without even the surmise of a solution.

He did not seem conscious of my scrutiny, and several little advances on my part toward an acquaintance, as delicately offered as possible, awoke no response. He consoled with no one. He did not converse, even with Madame, who often met him at entering, and always with cheery greetings that, never going beyond a few conventional phrases, were yet radiant with a pitying good will. He accepted them as though vaguely conscious of their meaning, but with a gravity that checked further address. On entering the room, or departing, he invariably paused at the door and saluted the company with a bow, which was as quietly returned. A week passed, and another. I was as far from him as ever. I called on Michel, and over a few trivial purchases ventured questions about his lodger. He could, or would, tell me no more than I already knew.

Then I watched Beguin as he passed through the public gardens. It was at once pitiful to see him peddling papers, and pathetic to notice how the people accorded him universal respect—except as now and then some group of careless foreigners would laugh at his quaint appearance. Of this he was oblivious. He appeared incapable of suspecting discourtesy.

I never saw him at this period of my observations in any conversation. For the

people respected his reticence. And it was strange how one in his position exacted, so quietly, such regard.

I began to despair of piercing the armor of his reserve, when one day as I walked to my lodgings, in the gloaming of a delicious eventide, I heard voices in clamorous dispute. Turning toward the sound, into a little lane, I saw Beguin surrounded by a group of people. Others, like myself, were hurrying forward. They were *ouvriers* and their women folk, all chattering vivaciously with much gesticulation. In the midst was a peasant girl, in *sabots*, short skirts, and bodice, with her apron flung over her head as she wept in hysterical sobbings. Beguin was trying to console her. His face was pale, and blood trickled from an ugly, bruised wound above the left temple. At their feet was a hulking, low-browed, coarse-featured fellow in a blue blouse, just then struggling to his feet. I pressed through the crowd saying,

“Monsieur, can I be of service? Pray command me.”

“That scoundrel offered an insult to this poor girl. I was passing as she screamed, and beheld him seize her—”

“Yes,” now exclaimed the girl, “he followed me along the lane. I was going home—he—he would accompany me. I hastened—he ran—and—took hold of my arm. He—he—” and she could say no more for her sobs.

“I came up,” resumed Beguin, “and remonstrated. He turned and struck me with a stick he carried, and I—I knocked him down, as you see. *Séllérat!*” he added, turning to the scamp, who was now held by several of the men; and I thought he was about to spring at him, when the light faded from his flaming eyes, a gray pallor spread over his face, his hand sought his head uncertainly, and before I could catch him he sank to the ground in a heap, as men do when all the energies are paralyzed instantly by a shock to the vital centers.

I pressed back the excited people, loosed his collar, discerned a faint fluttering at the heart, called for brandy, and when it was administered shortly decided that he could

be borne home. Meanwhile a physician was summoned thither, who after a hasty examination drove all from the room but Michel and myself, saying,

"Bad contusion—no fracture—severe shock—concussion of the brain, most likely. What was it, d 'ye know?"

I related the assault.

"Yes, yes," he said in the same jerky, explosive, peremptory speech. "Put him to bed—stimulation—may regain consciousness all right—may have brain fever—tell his friends."

I narrated the meager outlines of Beguin's story. He was much interested, saying,

"Strange case—partial suspension of faculties—very long period—study it out—may account for this condition. See him in the morning—must be watched."

I offered to stay during the night, and was left alone with the sufferer. He lay in a stupor, but toward morning became restless, tossing and moaning fretfully. I could do nothing but renew the cool bandages on his head. The watch was dreary enough. I found nothing to read, and in the plain, bare room, scantily furnished, there was but one thing to engage my attention. That was a miniature which hung on the wall above the foot of the cot. It was the portrait of a young and very beautiful woman. Its artistic quality surprised me until I traced the signature. It was the sign manual of a man now world-famous, who at the date intertwined with the initials was in the outset of his career. Here were the prophetic foregleams of his genius. He had depicted a lovely soul revealed through features of singular fascination. Yes, he had portrayed a soul, for here was not only the art of drawing and coloring,

"An outward show of things that only seem—  
That beauty is not, as fond men misdeem,"

but also the genius which discerns, and by a magic touch depicts, all that is noblest, sweetest, most spiritual in the character. The face, when critically examined, was not perfect. The nose was large—too large—but not coarse. It gave force to a countenance whose short, curved upper lip and narrow though daintily rounded chin were amiable

to the verge of weakness. The forehead seemed narrow at the temples, because the brow above rose broad and full. The eyes were large, somewhat deeply set, and of a rich, lustrous hazel. The hair was a yellow brown, shot through with tints of ruddy gold. But words clumsily strive in vain to convey an idea of the grace and charm of the countenance in its completeness. Here was both power and gentleness. It was easy to fancy this woman crooning over her child's cradle, or steadfastly enduring anything, to the utmost martyrdom, for her love or her faith.

It was the lost wife, I thought. Ah, this solves the problem. This face explains all, reveals all. It justifies the life-long grief that has broken the heart and wrecked the brain of poor Beguin.

I noticed that the two latticed windows in opposite sides of the room faced east and west, so that the last, and the first, rays of the sun, going and coming, would linger on the picture. I fancied the slow fading of the light in the long eventide, until the face vanished in gloom, to burst on the vision once more in the first glory of the morning. It dissolved into night; it flashed into light, like some mystic shrine before the eyes of this worshiper, whose earliest and latest thoughts each day it consecrated.

Obedying a sudden impulse I took the picture from the wall, locked it in a drawer of the table, and retained the key.

In the morning the doctor gave his verdict:

"Ah, fever—profound shock to the whole nervous system—brain injured—whether by the blow or by emotion, can't say as yet. Perhaps they have united in hastening a crisis of his malady. Result?—who can tell? May pull through an imbecile—may become conscious, to die, or to live perfectly sane. Matter of weeks. Notify friends. Ah, no relatives?—then must have a nurse."

Michel suggested the sending for a nurse from Marseilles, where, he said, were two deaconesses, pious, skillful women of his communion, who devoted themselves to the poor and the sick without recompense, for the love of Christ. One of them would come, he believed, at once. Leaving him to arrange af-

airs, I sought my room for much needed sleep, but returned to the little jeweler's shop in the afternoon.

I then learned something more. For, having mused amid the slow hours of the lonely night over the shattered story, I found myself still groping after the lost links of fact which might construct a reasonable explanation. But I failed. I bade myself dismiss the whole matter with the conclusion, "The man is crazy"; but my mind would not rest in this. So that afternoon I had recourse again to Michel, who, now persuaded of my sympathy, disclosed another fragment of the story. Seven years before, Beguin had appeared in Antibes an utter stranger. He stopped before the jeweler's window, read the notice affixed by wafers to the pane, "Apartments to let," entered, and engaged the little upper room which had since been his home. He emptied his pockets on the counter, saying,

"M'sieur, it is all I have. Take it and give me shelter while it lasts. I must earn more. I know not how. I need but little. Be assured I will not burden you. If I fail, when this is exhausted I will go away. See, I reserve this five-franc piece for food."

Michel assented, for the stranger's manner won the gentle, poetic artisan. And ere long he learned to love his guest. Moreover the passion for romance and mystery in this born Provençal was all aroused. And by degrees he learned something of Beguin's life. It was mostly from chance allusions, for Beguin was morbidly averse to speaking of his past and indeed was unable to recall in any clear, continuous form its happenings. Michel thought that he caught only momentary glimpses, as through a rifting mist which at once discloses and disguises a distant scene. How he took up his humble avocation was not known, but he discharged its duties with exact fidelity. In fact he was quite rational in all pertaining to the present. He would converse intelligently, but with languid interest, about current events. Nothing aroused him but some incident of cruelty or iniquity. He dealt with questions forced on his attention like a man of powerful intellect without adequate

information yet with the habits and methods of a scholar. He was skillful at the game of chess, which he often played of evenings with the village priest, his only intimate besides Michel. The former was an obese, indolent, but intellectual man of jovial, yet tender and sympathetic temperament. His humble parishioners adored him, but his ecclesiastical superiors held him in no great favor—a distinction due, doubtless, to a liberality of sentiment easily discernible in his conversation.

His characterization of Beguin seemed to me just. He said in our first interview after the accident:

"He is a man without a past or a future; an intellect detached from emotions and all natural relations. His heart is stunned. His will acts automatically, and is incapable of initiative. Yet occasionally his nature rehabilitates itself, and one catches a momentary view of a noble man, fitly planned, but discordant, deharmonized."

During the seven years of which these two bore testimony his life had been uneventful, except that he wandered off into the country at intervals, always after a period of moodiness. And this occurred regularly each springtime. On the approach of June after his arrival in Antibes he became restless, reserved, and dreamy. Michel feared the outbreak of some mental malady. But one day Beguin said, "My friend, I go away. I will return. Do not ask me questions."

In a week he returned, sad, silent, and haggard, but calmly content, and resumed his life's monotony. Michel dared not interrogate Beguin, who had never by design or accident afforded the slightest hint as to the place or purpose of these journeys.

The money which Michel received was from a generous Englishman who, visiting Antibes, became interested in Beguin and yearly sent, to assure his maintenance, a small but sufficient sum. It was the gift of a stranger who had no acquaintance with the lost periods of his life.

Thus it appeared absolutely hopeless to explore the mazes of Beguin's career. There was no clue. I abandoned the search. Yet I decided to await the issue of his illness,

dismissing from my mind the problem of his life. For sympathy had now taken the place of mere curiosity.

## II.

THE next morning I found in the little room, sitting quietly at the luminous eastern window, a robed figure, which rose to greet me, with an Old-World courtesy, and, as I bowed, the words,

"This is M. Lowell? I have heard. You are his friend. I am the Sœur Marie, who has come to nurse him."

It was a figure not quite nun-like, yet all unworldly. The gown, severely simple, was of bluish gray, which showed clear against the mellow morning light of the vine-draped window, and was emphasized by the contrast of snowy apron, deep cuffs, broad collar, and closely fitting little crown cap that completed her attire. As she turned to the cot, her face, before in shadow, caught my gaze. I was startled by an illusive suggestion which I could not trace. Was this face obscurely similar to a type with which I was familiar among friends in South Carolina, of Huguenot ancestry? Indeed it seemed more American than French. Perhaps, however, this effect on me was due to the simple directness of her manner; the unobtrusive self-dependence; the calm confidence, with an element of vivacity, utterly clear of coquetry, to which I was accustomed in my sisters overseas, and which was so unlike the attitude of the French maiden.

Before I had completed my very pleasing observations Sœur Marie turned from the cot, saying,

"He is quiet now. Almost it is a natural sleep. The fever abates. Pardon, M'sieur, will you be seated?"

As I availed myself of the proffer she resumed her place at the window and took up a bit of knitting, whose ball of gray yarn and shining needles wove memories of my boyhood's New England.

"Do you think," I said, "Ma'm'selle—excuse me; I have not learned your name—"

"They call me Sœur Marie," she said with a smile.

"Ah, yes," I replied, finding it distasteful

to use this monastic title. "I was about to ask, do you think you can endure the charge of such a patient?"

"Oh, yes, easily," she answered, "unless he should become delirious. If he were very violent I would of course need aid. And you know we are inured to such duties. I am licensed as a nursing deaconess, and have some experience."

"I was not aware that the Reformed religion had its nu—sisters."

"But we are not nuns, M'sieur."

"Pardon," I replied. "I did not say 'nuns.'"

"But you thought it," she interrupted, with the flash of a smile, "and you *did* say—'nu—sisters.'"

"Yes, but that unlucky *n* stood for 'nursing'. I meant 'nursing sisters.' That was your own phrase."

She laughed charmingly. It was a genuine, hearty laugh, yet dainty and melodious, as natural as a bird's song.

And she replied with emphasis:

"No! no! M'sieur, we are not nuns at all; for we do not believe in shutting up people in stone walls, but in sending them out into the world to do all the good they can."

"Well, but you are *dévoté*. You have your vows, I suppose—your rules of duty in the sisterhood, and all that?"

"Oh, yes, we have."

"May I ask what they are?"

"Certainly," she said. "They are very simple. We spend a time in training at the mother-house of our order, at Kaiserswerth, and are then assigned to work, at the will of our superior, in nursing or teaching or visiting the destitute and degraded in the parishes of great cities. It is very little, alas! we can accomplish, where so many, many suffer and sorrow; but we do what we can."

"Ah!" said I, "it is a noble service. And do you devote your whole life to it?"

"Yes, M'sieur, if it is God's will; that is unless some call to one's own home should intervene. If my dear mother needed me I would go to her. It would be recognized as my first duty."

"Then you are not bound by irrevocable vows?"

"Not at all, for we can not tell which way duty may point to-morrow. And what are such vows but chains upon the soul? We would serve our Master not 'grudgingly or of necessity,' but render up our lives to Him in the freedom of the spirit."

I proposed many questions as to this revival in a modern and most Protestant form of the ancient sisterhoods, but I must confess less from interest in the system than in this particular deaconess, and the conversation continued until the warning noon bell chimed from the village church. It revealed in the girl an unconscious grace, an intellectual integrity, a mingled sincerity, sagacity, and spirituality of mind which amazed me. I had known women bred in the best Puritan traditions who possessed a like practicality of judgment, conjoined with a profound and pervasive spiritual tone of feeling; but they had long passed girlhood, into the maturity of disciplined and instructed life. I had admired it as a moral heritage from Pilgrim ancestry, developed in favorable conditions. But here amid the Alpine foothills, in sunny, poetic, pleasurable Provence, I had found a flower of the same stock. It was not a blossom of cultivation, but grew apart as though flung down from the skies by the hand of God. In what peasant's cottage or petty bourgeoisie household could such a rare, fine nature have been born and bred? No wonder she had, little apprehending the motives that had moved her, sought escape from the narrowness of such a home, in a career affording scope to the aspiring, idealizing tendencies of her nature.

I rose to go, saying,

"And now what can I do for my friend, or for you? I shall be only too glad to give my aid."

"Nothing, M'sieur, not anything do we need. M. Michel will relieve me this evening, that I may rest, and some of the good women of our little church will afford me assistance."

"Very well," I said. "Command me at any time. I will return to-morrow."

I had but exchanged greetings with Sœur Marie the next day when the doctor entered, and with a gruff nod turned to the patient.

As he raised his head from a careful examination he caught sight of the nurse's card affixed to the wall above the cot, on which were noted the symptoms at regular intervals. He studied it critically and then wheeled on his heels.

"Good, very good," he said. "The sufferer is better. I hope for his life, and even for his reason. And you, Ma'm'selle,—"  
as he advanced, eying Sœur Marie quizzically, "and you—what are you? Not a *bon secours*, no! nor a sister of charity. Are you of a new order of nuns?"

"No, doctor, I am a deaconess of the Reformed Church. I was trained at Fleidner's school for nurses at Kaiserswerth, and have served two years in a hospital in Paris. I am now detailed for duty in Marseilles and the vicinity."

"Yes, a deaconess? Well, no nun—don't approve of nuns—morbid creatures—unnatural product of superstition. So, I suppose you can marry, eh? Well, do so, do you hear?—even if a good nurse is lost to us."

Then after a few orders he bowed himself out.

So then Sœur Marie was not under vows that precluded love and sweet home life. I found myself musing on her fitness to make some worthy man happy, when her voice startled me.

"M'sieur is *distract*. He is not ailing, I trust."

"No, oh, no," I said. "I never felt better. I was only thinking."

"Of your friend, doubtless. Well, take heart. You heard the physician. He confirms my own opinion. I believe he will awake rational. Perhaps this shock may deliver him from his long bondage."

"May God grant it," I said. "It would be very strange. Have you ever heard of such a result?"

"Oh, yes," she answered. "It is true, as I learned at the hospital, such instances are rare. After so long alienation few recover. But there have been some. One will resume consciousness, as it were, where it failed, and between all is a blank. To another that interval will seem as a 'dream



when one awaketh.' And, rarer still, memory returns to the distant past, which had disappeared behind a cloud, and still retains the later impressions. Then the sufferer knows of his malady and recalls many of its experiences."

"Poor Beguin!" I said. "The last, if it befall him, would be pitiful. Better to die than to awake to all his early misery."

"No," she said gently, "that is in a wiser choice than ours. And besides, as I understand, he was never rid of it. Amid the wreck of his intellect the memory of his sorrow remained."

"True; in fact it appeared to have been intensified, because no later interests ever occupied his thoughts, and no sympathy could soothe it, since he never shared his emotion with a friend."

"At any rate," she replied, with a glance of pitying gentleness at the sleeping man, "we must be prepared for the best—and for the worst—and it is impossible to say which would be better and which worse."

Just then Beguin turned, opened his eyes, and began to mutter.

Sœur Marie hastened to him, and as she stooped over him, he said:

"*Désiré*, is it thou?" Then, presently, in broken words—"I am ill; but I know thee now. See, dear, the roses of Provence! Dost thou remember? Ah, my wife, my love, can we ever forget?"

And taking the sister's hand, which had rested on his brow, he kissed it most tenderly. As she drew back he sighed softly and said, "I will sleep," and calmly closed his eyes, as a smile of peace faded from his worn features.

As she turned to me there were tears in her eyes.

"You heard? He thought I was '*Désiré*.' Poor soul! But it is well. His mind is full of gentle thoughts. The demons of grief are gone. May they never return."

The following morning he was better. He had taken food. He slept much, but normally. When awake, at brief intervals, he talked of his home, his parish, his acquaintances, and asked for "*petite Marie*," and "the babe." Once he tried to rise,

saying, "Where is it? I have not seen the child. I must go. Where is it?" Again he said, "How long have I been ill? *Désiré* where am I? Is this our room?"

So had passed the night in quiet slumber, with brief periods of anxious questionings. And through all he persisted in the strange delusion that the pretty, gentle sister was his wife.

She told me all this and more with bewilderment.

"'Tis very strange," she said. "And the coincidence! The little one—his child—had my name."

"Yes," I replied, "but it is the most common, because the most beautiful, of names. Do you think this favorable to his recovery?"

"Yes, all is hopeful. And I believe the crisis approaches. It remains to be seen how he will endure the recollection of his sorrow. Now he is living in the recovered memory of the period before it."

Late that evening as I sat in the *café*, detailing to Madame Duschene what I have just narrated, and she was querying, with an arch smile, about "that charming sister," the little jeweler came, much excited, exclaiming:

"*M'sieur*, come! Come quickly! Sœur Marie sends for you. *M. Beguin* is very strange. I implore you to come without delay."

He was unable to give particulars, as we hastened to the Rue Marseilles. The Sœur Marie was standing in the tiny room back of the shop. She was profoundly agitated. Her usual composure had been sadly disturbed. She said with nervous haste as I entered:

"He is quiet now." The doctor forced him to slumber by means of a narcotic. He feared the anger would madden him utterly. It was fearful to see—oh, dreadful!—and she pressed her hand over her eyes as though to shut out a visible horror.

"What was it?" I queried. "Be seated now"—and I took her hand, which trembled so pitifully that I stroked it with sympathy as I led her to a chair. "Compose yourself, my dear lady," I said—for I was oblivious

for the moment of the deaconess. "I pray you be at ease, and tell me what distressed you. Was our friend very much worse?"

"Ah! M'sieur, I will tell you all. He had been asleep, and roused, saying, 'Désiré.' I went to his side, and saw the look of happy expectancy in his eyes change quickly to anxious surprise, to fearful doubt and distress. Then he said sharply, 'Where is she—my wife? Who are you? Marie? No! You have her eyes; but—tell me who you are. She is a child, and I have not seen her. But my wife was here. I want her—do you hear? Bring her. *Heu!* where am I? Am I ill? This place!—it is not my room. What is it all?'

"He looked slowly about him. He had forgotten me. He was struggling with his thoughts, like a swimmer drowning in a sea of mysteries. Then steadily he emerged from the abysses to the light of reason, and he cried, oh! so piteously,

"My God! I remember. Oh, my God! It was a dream, and I have awakened. Yes, yes; this is Michel's house. I know it all now. I have not seen her. She died so long ago—and I—I live again. If God were good, I had died. But—I did see her; I heard her voice. Whether I was in the body or out of the body I know not. It may be I had cast off the flesh and could commune with her. Oh, why was I thrust back again? Oh, Désiré, my wife—my love—lost again—lost—lost! and, stretching out his arms imploringly, he turned his face to the wall and sobbed; not passionately, but hopelessly, as though the great groans were wrung from a breaking heart.

"I know not how long I stood, weeping also, before I dared to speak, when he turned his face quickly at the sound of my voice. Before he saw me his gaze lingered on the wall opposite, when he sprang upright, shouting, 'Where is it? The picture! Who dared to touch it?'

"What picture, M'sieur?" I said.

"He glared on me, his face convulsed by rage, and called aloud,

"You—you have taken it! Give it to me, I say! now—at once! Do you hear? It alone was left me, and you have robbed

me of it. Get it! get it, I say! Do you hear?"

"His voice rose to a scream. He fell back exhausted by excess of passion, yet he raved, he cursed me—oh, M'sieur, such words! He would have risen but for weakness. He would have slain me. He was mad. His frenzy was horrible, and I called for Michel, who brought the doctor. They held him despite his struggles, until he yielded to the drug inserted in his arm, and with sobs and sighs and convulsive tremors, at last, thank God, he slept. And now I fear the end approaches. When he wakes this mania will possess him. This delusion shows that the brain fails. Alas! poor soul, he soon will find his Désiré."

"But my dear Ma'm'selle," I said, when she was quiet again, "it is no delusion. There is a picture. It hung from the wall, and he missed it."

"A picture?" she said, "I did not see it—"

"No," I interrupted, "for I took it down. It was evidently a cherished relic—the portrait of his wife, I suppose—and framed with a curiously wrought case of silver, which I feared might disappear—"

"What!" she said. "You did not trust me?"

"Why I did not know *you* were coming. No one could tell what stranger might have access to the room. I did not even know that a nurse—or 'nursing deaconess' was coming. I had not made the acquaintance of your charming order."

She shrugged her shoulders, and pouted—positively pouted—while her eyes smiled. I was glad to see her thoughts diverted.

"Well," I added, "therefore hold me excusable for locking it in his desk."

Then I described the miniature and its location, adding, "Stay, I will get it," and soon placed it in her hand, little suspecting the effect it would produce. The girl glanced, then gazed. Her eyes widened. She paled and flushed, until she sank back in her chair murmuring, "My mother!"

I feared she would faint, and hastened to her side, but she rallied bravely, with an effort mastering her emotion, and said presently,

"What does this mean? I cannot think. How should *he* have my mother's picture?"

"Be composed," I said. "Why should you be alarmed? You are misled by some resemblance."

"No, I am positive. This is my own dear mother, as she was, as I recall her in my earliest memories. And even yet these are her eyes. She is lovely still—oh! lovelier and nobler than this—though not quite as fair as in her girlhood. Yes! yes! 'tis she. I know it."

I endeavored to laugh down her delusion, seeing it affected her so seriously. I thought her unduly moved, and even a little perversely persistent in holding fast an opinion so manifestly erroneous. It was impossible that this man, an utter stranger, far from her home, should have her mother's picture. And besides it was the portrait of his dead wife, as proved by his angry exclamations. As to that he could not be mistaken. She heard me with patient attention, regarding the picture meanwhile, until presently she reversed it, and with an exclamation pointed to an inscription traced in delicate letters: "Ernestine Marot. For her dear husband, on her 18th birthday."

"Perhaps you are aware that our name is Marot," she said. "You see that I am correct."

I was silenced. This was unanswerable. It could not be the dead wife's picture. Her name was Désiré Beguin.

"Oh, what is the meaning of all this?" she said piteously.

I suggested that Beguin had somehow possessed himself of the portrait in his wanderings, and cherished it because his distempered fancy fastened upon some likeness to his wife. I asked Marie if her mother had ever spoken of such a portrait.

"No," she said, "my mother has been always averse to talking about the period of her married life, which was brief, ending in the sudden death of my father."

"Do you remember your father?" I asked.

"Yes, but vaguely. I used to ask questions about him, until I noticed how it grieved my mother. She would be sad for days when anything recalled that time. I

have tried, but can never see his features in my thoughts or dreams. I recall his blithe, cheery ways, and the merry romps I enjoyed with him in the garden of our home. Often I rode on his shoulders or stood with my feet in the side pockets of his coat and my arms about his neck, laughing with childish glee as my face peered beside his while he carried me across the fields and through the village streets. Often in the early morning I would be with him as he tended the flowers, and I can remember well how in the season he would fill my apron with Provence roses for *maman*."

These reminiscences were, however, fragmentary, for she had never renewed her memory, as is the fashion of children, by talking of them with her mother. But certain scenes appeared vividly as she peered into that dim past of her childhood. Thus as I encouraged her to talk, hoping to win her attention from poor Beguin, she said,

"Once father told me that *maman* was ill, and I must be very quiet. The house was hushed and the doctor came. I feared him, and ran out in the garden and threw myself down on the ground beside a great rose bush and sobbed and prayed the *bon Dieu* to make *maman* well. I recall nothing more until I was riding in a cart with our old servant, *Tante Lisette*, along a country road. It seemed a great distance before we came to a farm house, where I was very happy in the novel delights of the place, except when I thought of home. But the kind peasant woman told me that *maman* was well, and would send for me some day. She was very good but seemed to pity me. I was surprised at this. Often she would look at me and shake her head, and then take me to her bosom, saying, '*Pauvre p'tite*, the good God be with thee!'

"A long time elapsed, as it appeared to me, until I was taken home, and my mother, very pale and sad, took me in her arms and wept over me, saying that papa was gone away to heaven, and I could not see him any more until God took me, if I was good, to that beautiful place."

Then there was a long journey, and arrival at the new home in Montbron, near Angou-

lême, where she had lived ever since. It was the village where her mother was born, in which she owned a cottage that now sheltered her desolate widowhood, as it had been the nest of her infancy. In the sweet and simple life of this quiet hamlet Marie's youth was nourished until she chose her vocation and entered the training school at Kaiserswerth, three years before.

When the brief story of her life was finished I could say nothing except to comment on the singular coincidence of Beguin's having the lost portrait and her coming to find it, after all these years, and across the whole breadth of France.

And then I restored it to its place on the wall of Beguin's room, that his eyes might fall on it as they opened from his stupor.

*(To be concluded.)*

## THE NEW PHOTOGRAPHY.

BY CHARLES BARNARD.

A PHOTOGRAPHIC dry plate will remain unaltered as long as it is kept in the dark. The faintest ray of light reaching the plate will impress itself upon it. Up to within a few weeks it has been supposed that nothing could pass through the wood, paper, or other light-proof or opaque material in which such plates are kept that would affect the plates as they are affected by light. It was known, however, that photographs could be obtained of things not visible to the human eye.

Certain materials have long been known to possess the property of phosphorescence. The most common example of this can be seen in the objects painted with "luminous paint." After exposure to strong light such materials glow with a phosphorescent light in the dark.

These three facts, the safety of photographic plates in the dark, the fact that the camera can sometimes give us pictures of the invisible, and the phosphorescence exhibited by certain materials, have hitherto

marked the outermost limits of our knowledge in these directions. All else was unknown, perhaps unknowable. At the same time it must be noticed that there is a suggestion of something more, a wider field of knowledge yet beyond. The camera has in a few instances pictured that which is in-

visible to the eye. Would it ever do more? Did it suggest new possibilities in photography? Did it suggest things and laws in nature yet to be discovered?

Early in January last it was announced that these limits to our knowledge had been suddenly removed, new vistas in science had been opened, and in precisely the direction suggested by the camera. Discoveries were announced concerning phosphorescence that

indicated wholly new laws in the physical universe. The photographic plate assumed wholly novel aspects under novel conditions. The report of these discoveries opened a new and most promising field of scientific research, even suggested a new science, perhaps a new art. These reports attracted



PROFESSOR WILHELM CONRAD ROENTGEN.

universal attention and every electrical and physical laboratory in the world instantly took up the new knowledge, experimented with it, and at once confirmed by actual demonstration the truth of the reports. More remarkable than all, the entire press of the world repeated this purely scientific news in every language. Details of the new discoveries were telegraphed under every ocean and the reading public of the world read the news almost at the same breakfast table. In less than thirty days absolutely new scientific terms were apparently adopted into the daily language of the newspapers. This universal eagerness to hear the news, this universal acceptance and adoption of the new facts and laws in nature was of itself almost as impressive as the discoveries themselves. The incredible was stated and it was believed.

Professor Wilhelm Conrad Roentgen, in making his report upon his discoveries before the Physico-Medical Society of Würzburg, appears to have been inspired with that fine, unselfish spirit that characterizes the true man of science. There is no hint of patents or copyrights, no discussion of the commercial value of his discoveries. All is given freely to the world. "We observe," he modestly says, "It is to be observed," he repeats, that under new conditions old and familiar materials behave in a new way that completely upsets all our previous ideas concerning them. Under such conditions new laws appear, familiar materials behave in wholly new ways, and common things exhibit properties of which we had no conception.

Fortunately it is not necessary here to examine minutely or to consider in detail all the complicated apparatus and methods used by Professor Roentgen in the researches that resulted in his discoveries. We can apprehend the value and import of his discoveries without comprehending his methods. It is only necessary to understand clearly a few definitions. A vacuum tube is a glass tube or vessel from which the air has been exhausted. Some forms of vacuum tubes have received the names of inventors who devised them, as the Geissler and Crookes

tubes. Newer forms have been made in whole or part of metal in place of glass. Vacuum tubes are used to examine the behavior of electrical currents under high vacuums and a great field of scientific research has been occupied through the use of these tubes. The details of the construction of these tubes and the long list of remarkable phenomena they exhibit need not now be considered. We have only to observe that light rays out from the tube when it is in action. There are other rays that radiate from such tubes that do not behave exactly like light, though they produce some of the effects of light. These have received the name of cathode rays (from the cathode or negative terminal of the wires that convey the current to the tube) and they have been made the subject of long and exhaustive study by many men of science.

Professor Roentgen's discoveries begin just here, where, until now, it seemed as if the limits of knowledge had been reached. Professor Roentgen reported that he had been experimenting with a vacuum tube and a paper screen covered with some phosphorescent material. As a matter of experiment he covered the tube with black cardboard, thus cutting off all the light it gave out and leaving the room totally dark. In this darkened room the phosphorescent screen glowed with light. Here were absolutely new conditions and new results. What caused the phosphorescence? Light would cause it and there was no light. Clearly there were undiscovered and invisible rays passing from the vacuum tube directly through the cardboard and through the dark air of the room. The next fact was even more startling. If the cardboard was transparent to these rays, might not other things also permit them to pass? Might not other things besides paper be thus transparent to these unknown rays? Paper, tin foil, leather, wood, and other things that to our own sight are opaque or light-proof were found to be transparent to these rays. A book, a pack of cards, a piece of board placed before the screen cast only faint shadows or none at all, precisely as if they were glass in sunlight or as if they had no real existence.



The living flesh of a man's hand offered very little obstruction to the rays and the shadow of the hand upon the screen clearly showed the invisible bones of the fingers.

Thus far Professor Roentgen's discoveries, while of transcendent interest, do not pass beyond the field of scientific research. The next step is even more remarkable and transfers the subject to the domain of practical work in the photographic studio, the hospital, and the workshop. Wishing to prove that these unseen and hitherto unknown rays (happily called "X rays") really existed, Professor Roentgen experimented in another direction. He examined the action of the X rays upon photographic plates. The results were most extraordinary. The sensitive plate inclosed in its wooden holder, and therefore shut off from all light, behaved in the new rays precisely as if in ordinary daylight. In other words, photographs could be taken by the invisible rays. The X rays could be used to make a picture, and with the most remarkable results. To understand this it should be observed that the photographic plate is inclosed in its wooden holder. The object to be photographed is placed upon the holder in the path of the X rays. We may suppose the object is a leather purse with a metal frame and hasp and containing some coins. After the exposure has been made in this simple manner, in full daylight, the plate can be developed, when a negative is produced that gives the metal parts of the purse and the coins and nothing more. Clearly the X rays give a photographic plate precisely as does light with this difference: the peculiar transparency of certain things to the X rays is shown in the photograph. The leather purse is transparent to X rays and the negative is blank. It should be observed here that in the first experiments in the study of phosphorescence with the X rays the vacuum tube must be covered with some material that cuts off all light, the experiments being conducted in the dark. In the photographic work no cover is needed, and the work may be done in day or lamp light, as the plates are always inclosed in a light-proof holder or dark box.

It is evident that these remarkable dis-

coveries give us entirely new facts concerning the properties of things. We could not imagine that leather and wood are transparent to anything or that glass can be opaque to any rays. When the presence of new and unseen rays that have the photographic power of light with new powers of passing through different materials as light passes through glass is announced we see at once that a long series of experiments must now be made to discover the relative transparency of wood, paper, horn, flesh, bone, and other things. Living flesh is transparent, bone is less so. This means that we can photograph the bones of a living hand. Such a photograph of a human hand seems at first glance strangely ghostly and uncanny. The hand is faintly yet clearly photographed, and right through the shadowy fingers shine the white bones, showing their perfect form and articulation, exactly as if the flesh were a transparent jelly clothed about the skeleton. Such a photograph, marking as it does the discovery of a new photography, may well point with bony fingers toward a vast field suddenly opened to human study and research. To what strange land it points none can tell. We only know it points the way to a new and hitherto undiscovered country. Naturally, hundreds of photographs have within the past few weeks been taken with the X rays, exhibiting curious, almost fantastic results. The bones of fish and small animals, steel tools showing the metal inside the wooden handles, the lead inside a pencil, and other odd bits of photographic work have been published everywhere in the newspapers and have seemed to make the new X-ray photography familiar.

The immediate practical value of these discoveries is plainly pointed out by the bony fingers of this transparent hand. If the flesh is transparent and certain metals are opaque in the X rays, a bullet or needle in the flesh, invisible to the eye, perhaps beyond the reach of the surgeon's probe, may be pictured in a photograph. Photographs of hands and feet have already been made showing shot buried in the flesh, fractured bones, and malformations in the bony structure of the limbs.

The value of such pictures of the invisible is beyond estimate. By the aid of such photographs the surgeon can discover the exact condition of the invisible bones or the position of a foreign body, like a shot or needle, and being thus able, as it were, to look through the flesh can work with precision and confidence. For this, if for no other reason, the discovery of the X rays must rank among the greatest discoveries now made. Moreover, the new science becomes instantly of vital, practical, and universal value to humanity in the home and the hospital. In other directions the new photography is full of possibilities. We can obtain pictures of invisible bones and with equal ease obtain pictures of the invisible in many things—flaws and fractures in metals, weldings in pipes, imperfect combinations in alloys, perhaps many other conditions or changes in metals that are wholly invisible to the eye. If the X rays penetrate the opaque and picture the unseen they may yet make the photographic plate a detective searching out the hitherto unknown.

These remarkable discoveries are so new that there has not yet been time to learn all the laws governing the action of the X rays. The many experimenters all over the world who have taken up the study of the rays appear to have learned one or two facts that seem to indicate that, while the X rays produce some of the effects of lights, they do not follow the known laws of light. They traverse many objects that do not permit light to pass. They do not appear to be reflected nor can they be refracted. They will impress a photographic plate, but not in the usual way in a camera. A lens has apparently no effect upon them, except to obstruct them. Solutions that absorb certain rays of light have no effect upon the X rays. In photography with X rays no camera is needed. This explains why all the pictures taken with the new rays are silhouettes. They are pictures of shadows only and shadows in rays that appear to be wholly independent of light. All the work so far has been done by placing the plates in a holder, placing the object to be photographed upon it in the path of the invisible rays.

There is no focusing, as there is no lens, and it appears to be only necessary to place the object to be photographed as near the plate as possible. In appearance the negatives all seem to be most perfect in the center, as if the streams of rays from the vacuum tubes spread through the air in every direction. The plates give the best results when close to the tube and all the photographs appear to be deeper or most intense in the middle and to fade or grow thin at the edges. The rays cannot be deflected or concentrated as in a camera and therefore there are as yet no real pictures. However, the silhouettes obtained are so remarkable that we can well afford to wait and see what future experiments and discoveries will bring forth.

One of the curious results of these discoveries is the universal interest everywhere taken in them. The public is eager to learn all that can be learned of the new art of picturing the invisible and the hundreds of experimenters who are at work in this new field of science are more than willing to report in the press from day to day all they learn concerning the behavior of the X rays. The result has been, in some respects, unfortunate by raising public expectation too high and in leading people to believe that the impossible may soon become true. And yet every conservative mind must hesitate even to say what is the impossible. The impossible has just been done and the general newspaper public calmly accepts the last new statement with confidence because it has just seen the unknown made known and pictures made of the invisible. No man has yet seen the bones of the hand through the flesh. We have all seen pictures taken by rays that penetrate the flesh and give us silhouettes that appear to the eye precisely as the thing itself would appear could the eye see through the flesh to the bones.

Out of the researches of many must come new facts, new laws, new uses for these discoveries and we can await the results with confidence. When hundreds of keen, observing minds are suddenly turned to the investigation of new and remarkable phenomena we may be sure that processes and methods will be made cheaper and more

simple. Already the experiments of our leading men of science, inventors and electricians, have added immensely to our knowledge of the subject. New discoveries and new methods have been announced every day from all parts of the country and it would seem as if any day or hour might bring forth new phases of the X ray photography that would be as startling as any yet recorded.

The student naturally wishes to investigate the matter himself, and for those who may desire to make such investigations a few simple directions, suggested by Dr. W. J. Morton of New York, may be of value. The X rays can be easily produced with any ordinary static machine and a common Crookes radiometer bulb that can be bought at the opticians. The terminals of the machine are brought close together to give a stream of sparks. Small disks of tin foil are then secured on opposite sides of the radiometer bulb and each is connected by a wire with the machine. All the phenomena of cathode rays can then be seen in the bulb and the unseen X rays will be found to flow from the cathode disk on the bulb, and a photographic plate in its holder held near the bulb will give shadow or silhouette pictures of objects held in the path of the rays.

Naturally there has been much speculation concerning the value of the X rays in practical work. So far it has been found in the pictures of living bony structures and in the study of metals. All else is conjecture. Whether the rays will have any influence over germs of disease as have heat and light remains to be seen. It is encouraging to know that hundreds of experimenters are everywhere advancing into this new field of knowledge and much of value to humanity must come from their labors. What it will be no man can yet say.

We can only be glad the door has been opened to a new domain of knowledge where new laws and new conditions obtain. We may be sure that these new discoveries only open wider our view of the "beautiful whole," the cosmos where law reigns. The spectroscope widened the visible universe to an almost inconceivable extent and proved that the laws of nature remain unchanged to the uttermost star. The vacuum tube has opened up a new country and yet the X rays may be only new manifestations of the law of motions that extends from sun to sun and, however strange these new things appear, they are yet a part of the Creator's universe

## THE SULTAN OF TURKEY.\*

BY EDWARD F. HAY.

THE most unhappy man in the world, say they who have seen him, is Abdul Hamid II., sultan of Turkey. Monarch of an empire one million six hundred thousand square miles in area, and absolute ruler of nearly forty million persons, he is a victim of poverty more bitter than penuriousness, of solitude more harrowing than bereavement. Whenever he reaches out to appropriate the privileges and enjoyments which his high place procures for him, his hand drops empty as a beggar's, paralyzed

by the death lurking therein, and whenever he rides out in view of his craven subjects, while they applaud, storms of suspicion rack him with torment, widening the gulf that separates him from all his kind.

Out of all this multitude of subjects he has



ABDUL HAMID II.

\*The following articles of interest in connection with the Turkish question have recently appeared in THE CHAUTAQUAN: "The Turks in Armenia" and "The Founding of the Red Cross Society" in the February number; "Armenia and the Armenians" and "Clara Barton" in the March number.

never found one whom he did not regard as capable of designing against his life. Despot himself, he is held in abject obeisance by this constant apparition of murderous treachery. It drove him from the most beautiful palace in the world, built for the abode of the sultans, to exile in a plain kiosk called Yildiz. Dolma Bagtche, the palace he deserted, is a structure of exquisite loveliness, built of the purest marble, fairylike in its airy grace and priceless furnishings. But charming as it is the sultan did not fancy it for a tomb and so abandoned it; for it is so near the water that foes could suddenly disembark and in a few minutes arrive at its very door.

The sultan's refuge was originally only a summer villa of modern build, but now it is palatial throughout and imposing in its simple elegance. What it lacks in splendor is offset by its safe location on an elevated site and by the fine view of surrounding Europe, Asia, and the Bosphorus which it commands. Yildiz contains, says a recent authority, "all the *dramatis personæ* of the tales of the Scheherazade, the eunuchs, mollahs, pashas, beys, astrologers, slaves, sultanas, kadines, dancing women, Circassian and Georgian odalisques." This swarming ant-hill is surrounded by a pleasant park, which is constantly guarded by soldiers under the command of Osman Pasha.

From this stronghold the sultan never ventures forth except on Fridays, when his religion requires him to go to a mosque to pray, and once a year on the first day of the month of Byram, when he is obliged, also by his religion, to repair with his court to the "Chamber of Noble Garments" in the palace of Dolma Bagtche.

These short journeys occurring with relentless regularity whether the sultan is sick or well, are the occasions of pageants unparalleled the world over in magnificence. Twelve thousand troops line the road and stationed at various places are other soldiery and bands of students who have been ordered out to sing and pray for the sultan as he passes. His majesty, with Osman Pasha sitting at his left, travels in a fine equipage drawn by two superb white Arabian horses.

About his carriage are mounted bodyguards in the most gorgeous uniforms; then there are the imam of the padishahs in his flowing robes and green turban, a band of learned Arabian and Syrian ulemas, some of the favorite wives closely secluded in their carriages and attended by eunuchs, the grand vizier, the generals of the army in imposing uniforms, ministers of state, officers, secretaries, and dignitaries innumerable, all a dazzling, replendent procession. Every movement in the multitudes of people thronging to witness these marches fills the sultan with dread apprehension. He is a picture of terror from the moment he sets out till the gates of Yildiz close him in their shelter again.

Even at Yildiz his vigilance never ceases. Visions of the assassin's weapons are supplemented by nightmares of the assassin's poison. He has water, his principal drink, brought from a distance in tightly closed casks, and his food, mostly vegetables, served in sealed saucepans of silver. At one time he actually subsisted for days on hard-boiled eggs to avoid being poisoned. Sometimes the sultan receives a guest or one or two of his sickly-looking sons at his repast, but usually he eats alone. Tasters are always obliged to sample the food before the sultan partakes of it.

Exile and fearful of his life as Abdul Hamid is, it is easier to gain audience with him than with any other European ruler. The one condition required is to be a friend of Turkey and of Turkish rule. An ambassador upon presenting his credentials is received in a sumptuous reception room. He delivers his message to his own official interpreter, who repeats it to the sultan's chamberlain; he in turn delivers it to the sultan. The sultan's reply is sent back by the same stages. The ambassador then is conducted to the imperial Turk and seated on the divan beside him. His majesty lights a cigarette, which he offers to his guest. It is accompanied by a fine amber mouthpiece and coffee served in jeweled cups. Sometimes Abdul Hamid dines at the same table with guests whom he has invited to visit him, but more often he only

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sends them dishes from his own table in token of honor. Unofficial visitors he treats with much less ceremony, but they undergo thorough examination before admittance to the imperial presence. Plain and simple in his manners as in his dress, the sultan is very courteous to all his guests. The terrible side of his disposition no doubt finds sufficient exercise on those of his subjects considered by him to be rebels.

Well has Abdul Hamid earned the name of the modern Nero; in the recent massacres instigated by him in his kingdom, during two months only, in six provinces, fifty thousand Armenians were slain, a greater number of persons than perished in any one of the ten great crusades of the church. This wholesale bloodshed has set the world shuddering in horror; this relentless destruction of a Christian nation has called forth councils of civilized governments to discuss the rescue of the hapless race from the oppression of a monster of barbarism. And in sight of the great slaughters the lesser slaughters and the object of them both are by many lost to view. Indeed when whole villages are reeking in gore, it seems a small thing that during this despot's reign scores of Turks have been summoned to his court and never heard of more, but the principle of the wholesale and of the individual murders is the same: to root out the elements that threaten the prosperity of the Ottoman Empire and its ruler.

Nor is Abdul Hamid, when considered in the environments which he inherited, an unusual monster of cruelty; for in nations half of whose people custom holds in such a low condition as to be bought and sold, to be kicked or caressed at the will of the other half, where infants of these mothers are reared or killed as convenience dictates, it cannot be expected that human life will be valued as highly as where in the eyes of the law all are born free and equal.

His father before him was a shedder of blood; in his reign occurred the massacre of Christians in Lebanon and Damascus of such enormity as to provoke the western world to interfere. Abdul Hamid's mother is said to have been an Armenian slave woman, and this is not unlikely, nor in Turkeydom a

stigma, for all the women of the imperial harem are originally slaves—most of them bought or stolen in childhood from Circassian and Georgian peasants. A sultan is therefore always the son of a slave woman. Moreover Abdul Hamid resembles the Armenians in appearance and possesses traits characteristic of that race, such as his genius for politics and finance. Perhaps royal families who scorn to marry outside of their own caste and consequently are the victims of centuries of enervating wealth would be the better for an infusion of healthy, sturdy peasant blood. It may be from this source that Abdul Hamid obtains his vigorous industry and perseverance. It certainly is not from his training.

Reared in the seclusion of the seraglio and never allowed to participate in the ceremonies of court life, nor to receive newspapers, letters, or other communications from the outside world, as is the unwise custom for all members of the Turkish imperial family, he had no practical preparation for the consulate. Besides, the education of Ottoman princes is very inferior, being relegated largely to foreign parasites and adventurers. Imprisoned in this hotbed of superstition and ignorance, it is no wonder that he debased his very early manhood by rioting in the demoralizing luxuries which make Constantinople the cesspool of the world. Then suddenly he faced about from his evil course, banished intoxicants, and devoted himself to books. He had lived as a pious ascetic for some time when in May, 1875, the sultan Abdul Aziz was deposed and Abdul Hamid's brother, Murad V., placed on the throne. Then came the gruesome news of Abdul Aziz's suicide. In a few months Murad V. was proclaimed mad and Abdul Hamid was called to the sultanate.

Abdul Hamid protested against the deposition of his brother and employed the best medical advice to effect his cure, but all in vain. The men in power became impatient, and the following August Abdul Hamid ascended the throne.

No longer the confines of the seraglio bounded his horizon. A prisoner of state



no longer, he was given the authority of life and death over one of the vastest empires of the world.

In heathen Turkeydom a sovereign's partner in honor is his mother, or, if he is so unfortunate as to have lost her, her place is taken by his nurse, who is second in esteem only to his mother—a noble custom which should put to shame children of neglected mothers and employers of rude, incompetent nurses, so common in Christendom. When Abdul Hamid became ruler of the empire, his nurse became ruler of his harem, an honor of no mean proportions, for this feminine hierarchy of fifteen hundred persons forms a court much like that of the sultan. Upon ascending the throne Abdul Hamid did not create so much agitation in this veiled city as did his grandfather, Mahmoud II., "the Reformer," who had more than one hundred and fifty women from the harems of his two immediate predecessors drowned in the Bosphorus.

From such ancestry, the victim of such environments, with little or no training for his high offices, Abdul Hamid was tossed into the leading place of government just at a time when the country was most in need of guidance by a skilled hand and wise head. The home provinces were in insurrection, foreign war seemed inevitable, and owing to the wild extravagances of Abdul Hamid's uncle, Abdul Aziz, there was no money nor credit left to maintain armies. Servia and Montenegro lost no time in declaring war; the Russians supported Servia and threatened invasion on the north and east; Greece made hostile demonstrations on the south and Austria on the west.

Shaken by the recent tragic death of his uncle and deposition of his brother, he dared trust none of his men. Many of the Turkish pashas he suspected of being in Russian pay and could not venture to avail himself of their counsel. So in the fear of treachery and the confusion of inexperience he struggled on alone. His one bright ray of encouragement in these dark months of chaos was Osman Pasha's heroic defense of Plevna. When at last this gallant general was forced to surrender and the Russians

rushed over the Balkans to Constantinople, the pashas all urged hasty flight to Brusa across the Bosphorus, but Abdul Hamid would not hear of it. Placing Mouktar Pasha in command of the surviving wreck of the Turkish forces, he ordered them drawn up for a last stand. In this desperate situation the Turks were alarmed by the British fleet which now forced the Dardanelles and anchored at Prince's Island, only one day's steaming from Constantinople. The pashas and influential ministers unanimously counseled flight. Abdul Hamid resisted them and the capital was saved. When the Russians as victors demanded the surrender of the Turkish fleet, by his prompt action and bold address Abdul Hamid withheld it from their clutches.

He saved the fleet by adroitness only to lose it by neglect. In the embarrassed condition of his country he was unable to exercise the proper ascendancy over the marine power and so preferred to see it fall to decay rather than strengthen it to his own undoing; for he remembered that the conspirators against Abdul Aziz had first secured the fleet and then enforced their demands by pointing its guns at the capital.

Though the sultan does not float much of a fleet, he manages to float loans at five per cent—twenty years ago Turkish loans were out at twelve per cent. Besides rescuing the empire from bankruptcy the sultan has built up a fortune for himself. The peasantry, it is true, have steadily been pinched to sorer poverty, but the national credit must be restored and suffering is the unavoidable accompaniment of war.

If for his financial triumphs the sultan has obliged his subjects to narrow their expenditures, on the other hand he has enabled them to broaden their lives. At the beginning of the Russo-Turkish War, he was founding a preparatory college for the civil service. At the close of the war he established a law school at Constantinople. He also founded other special schools, and during his reign two thousand elementary schools have been opened accommodating one hundred thousand pupils. He has encouraged the education of women by providing numerous girls'

schools in the capital and other towns. He is the first Turkish monarch who ever allowed a Christian woman to sit at his table, and the first to decorate his palace with pictures and portraits or to show any interest in the valuable remains of Grecian art. All of these indications of a broadening spirit distinguish him from his predecessors. Some of his liberal ideas may have been gained in the famous European tour which he made in his youth in company with his uncle Abdul Aziz. If only the broadening influence had not stopped short of his religious life awful wrongs and bloody persecutions might have remained unwritten in his history.

Yet, as sultans go, Abdul Hamid cannot be considered a savage. His friends insist that he is humane where the safety of the throne and empire is not at stake; one of his efforts in this direction is the abolishment of the hideous custom of slaying the male nephews of the sultan.

His majesty's atrocities may be accounted for by his adherence to Aristotle's noted maxim that "enfeebled governments in order to regain vigor should return to the principles upon which they were originally founded." Terror, then, must be the winning power in the government of Osmali, for by terror the Ottomans wrested their throne from the Cæsars and by terror they have held it through five centuries. Massacre has been the common method of strengthening their authority.

The annihilation of unbelievers is a leading tenet of the Mohammedan faith, therefore massacre of heretics only adds luster to the sultan's record as a pious Mohammedan, and this is what he prides himself on being. Ambitious even in piety, he is not content to emulate the modesty of his califf predecessors and be known simply as the "Servant of the Servants of God," but gradually has made inordinately presumptuous claims in spiritual, as he has in temporal, domains. For instance the titles "Shadow of God," "Refuge of the World," "Pontiff of the Mussulmans," "Slayer of Men," and "Father of All the Sovereigns of the Earth," were unknown to former

sultans and find no support in the Koran.

Aspiring to every conceivable honor himself, he can bear to have no one else receive any distinction or seem to exert any power. Still there is one man in the empire so influential that without his consent a sultan cannot be installed nor deposed. It is the sheik ul Islam, or vizier general. His office is to report to his sovereign all that occurs among the clergy, to preserve the balance of religious affairs by rewarding or punishing certain acts, in fact to keep up the zeal not to say fanaticism of the faithful throughout the empire. Though the sultan can depose him at will, he has so strong a hold on the superstition of the people that unless aspirants to the throne were fortified by his approach the soldiers would mutiny and the populace rise in insurrection rather than recognize them.

The present sultan's policy in regard to this dignitary is different from that of his ancestors. In the last century about one hundred grand viziers met death by the rope or in the "terrible well of blood" whose ruins may to-day be seen in the Castle of Seven Towers. Abdul Hamid's blows are aimed at the office. He seeks to neutralize this official's dangerous influence over the people by averting to himself all the reverence and superstitious veneration pertaining to the office, leaving the grand vizier to figure in the eyes of the people as a tool, stripped of all power except that of regulating the religious ceremonial functions of the empire. By this policy the sultan has won a position much like that of the pope of the Latin Church.

In governmental affairs, too, in fact in all departments whatsoever, the sultan suppresses the possibility of a rival in public attention. He promptly annihilates any one who rises above mediocrity. Consequently he has no statesmen, but only machines to carry out his will. Even the thirteen counsellors in his Royal Porte have no incentive to develop ability in their offices. They are only less insignificant than the farcical Parliament tolerated by him at the beginning of his reign to serve as a blind to the great powers who had demanded reforms in the

government of Turkey. The burdensome habit of trusting no second person to do anything, which in the inauspicious beginning of his reign caution required of him, has become a mania with Abdul Hamid. Although he labors industriously seventeen or eighteen hours a day, it is inevitable that many important affairs of state must be overlooked by a sovereign whose jealousy and distrust impose on himself the task of doing in person absolutely everything that is done pertaining to the ruling of his empire, from the signing of proposed regulations for a suburban *café chantant* to the signing of a permit to allow a British ambassador to repair at his own expense his steam launch in the Turkish dockyard. What wonder that business moves slowly in an empire where

the whole procession of details must pass in single file before one mortal man?

Impeded by this freight train of commonplaces, the sultan has yet managed to get ahead of all the rival diplomats of both continents and to keep their meddling fingers out of his domain. But his coveted position of "Esteemed Center of the Universe," to which his generalship entitles him, he has the bitter mortification of seeing forfeited by his own too great self-seeking, in the case of his timorous neglect of the fleet. This has caused Turkey to slip from her proud position as mistress of the seas, and consequently to become practically a fief to Russia. The arrogant sultan now bears the galling title "the czar's *dvornik*" or keeper of the back door of the Russian Empire.

### BECKONINGS.

BY CLINTON SCOLLARD.

THE year is sown with wiles;  
Through slant and baffling snows  
March smiles,  
And shows  
Where the first snowdrop blows.

Beyond damp April's verge  
And May's uncertain moon,  
Emerge  
Bright June  
And the red rose for boon.

Through summer's haze of heat  
Oe'r sad, sere meadows rolled,  
How sweet  
Unfold  
October's stores of gold!

Still the elusive strife!—  
From slope to beckoning slope  
Through life  
We grope,  
Urged ever on by hope.

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## WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

### CRACKER ENGLISH.

BY MISS E. F. ANDREWS.

OF WESLEYAN COLLEGE, MACON, GA.

WE have had a surfeit of dialect lately. The pages of the magazines have been filled with patois

of every description and professional readers and writers have vied with each other in humoring the popular whim till good English seems to have gone quite out of fashion. We have had negro dialect and cracker dialect and hoosier dialect and "hobo" dialect and "heathen Chinese" dialect and Chinook dialect, and now Professor Garner is threatening to give us chimpanzee dialect into the bargain! What wonder if the lover of good English, in the agony of his soul, degenerates into slang and cries, "Give us a rest"?

And yet dialect has its uses, both literary and scientific; it is only the abuse of it by writers who exploit the prevailing crotchet of the day to float a story whose bad English is its only title to distinction that is here condemned. In his eagerness to work his specialty for all it is worth the professional writer of dialect stories perverts and exaggerates local peculiarities until the natives themselves would never recognize their own speech as interpreted in his pages. Even so true an artist as Miss Murfree is led away by this temptation into making her simple-hearted mountaineers say "mounting" for mountain, a vulgarism into which the vaulting ambition of the country schoolmaster or the circuit preacher may sometimes o'erleap itself and fall, but from which the unassuming simplicity of the typical cracker may be pretty safely relied upon to protect him. So, you will frequently hear from the rural pulpit expressions like this: "The apostle Paul are here speaking of the Jews"; and I once knew a fancy butler, a "gemman of color," who would always announce with a flourish, "Dinner are served." But slips of this kind

are common only among those whose speech has been contaminated by association with "edicated" people.

Dialect, being the language of simple and uncultivated people, naturally runs largely into mere vulgarism, hence it is impossible to treat of the one without touching also, to some extent, upon the other, and many of the "crackerisms" recorded here will doubtless be recognized by readers in other parts of the country as old acquaintances of their own. But dialect, as the speech of unassuming, unprogressive, and more or less sequestered communities, is comparatively free from the shifting slang and catchwords of the streets, and almost wholly so from those pretentious vulgarisms that result from an overweening desire to be elegant. In its broader sense, as understood by philologists, a dialect is to its parent tongue what a variety is to a species in botany or zoölogy, and as such may possess untold possibilities. In this sense the English language itself was once a mere dialect of Low German. But as the word is popularly understood it applies to those linguistic odds and ends that we find stranded in the stagnant pools and marshes along the shores of the great current of our living speech. They represent rather the belated survivals of obsolete forms than the vigorous offshoots of a growing tongue—the old-fashioned garments of thought left behind in the garrets and closets of our linguistic household, from which the renovating hand of modern culture is fast clearing them away. For this reason, while the speech of the more recently settled parts of our country may be more replete with the class of vulgarisms that come under the head of slang and neoterisms, it is in the older sections that we are to look for the more marked peculiarities of dialect.

Owing to the presence of the negroes and to the long social and political isolation of the Southern States on account of that presence, this section has, perhaps, preserved more marked peculiarities of dialect than any other portion of the Union. As a general thing the southerner learns what I may call his "mammy" tongue before making the acquaintance of his mother tongue, and the influence of the earlier speech is apt to affect his utterance through life, as may be observed in his tendency to ignore the letter *r*, or to regard it as a mere modifier of the preceding vowel. This peculiarity causes our native dialect writers unwittingly to mislead their readers of other sections in rendering the negro and cracker pronunciation of such words as *of*, *to*, *you*, etc., by "er," "ter," and "yer." While this spelling exactly conveys the sounds in question to a southern ear, accustomed to the elision of *r*, its effect is likely to be altogether misleading among readers who are in the habit of treating that ill-used letter with due respect. It cannot be more wide of the mark, however, than the conventional "yo" of the comic papers. The negro says "mo" for *more* and "yo" for *your* because he has an unconquerable antipathy to the letter *r*, but neither he nor his cracker neighbor ever says "yo" for *you*; in pronouncing the latter word he simply gives *ou* the sound of *u* in *hut*.

From negro English to cracker English is but a step. In fact, barring a few differences in accent and intonation, their speech, except where it shades off into the "salt water" lingo, or Africanized English of the seacoast, on the one hand and the quaint dialect of the mountaineer on the other, is practically the same throughout the cotton belt of the South Atlantic States, and its vocabulary is largely made up of survivals from the standard English of bygone generations. In the classic pages of Burke and Goldsmith, of Swift, Fielding, Sterne, and Addison, to say nothing of the older writers, I am constantly running upon old acquaintances that I have known all my life as part and parcel of our Georgia plantation vernacular. Fielding, for instance, makes

a very near approach to the crackerism, "He allowed he'd do it," in such a passage as this: "The audience allowed I did your part justice"; and when Burke complains that "England is disfurnished of its forces," he is using almost the exact phraseology of my cracker neighbor who has come to borrow a peck of meal and politely hopes that I am not "disfurnishing" myself for his accommodation. *Ill* is still occasionally heard, even among the better class of rustics, in the piney woods of Georgia and Alabama in its Shakespearean sense of dangerous or wicked, as "The copperhead is an ill snake," or "Johnny is a very ill," that is, naughty, "boy this morning." I am told by a friend from Kentucky that the same usage, though rare, is not unknown among the same class in that state. To "favor," meaning to resemble, as "He favors his father," was good English in the days of Addison and Shakespeare, and its derivative, *ill-favored*, is still current.

In fact, if precedent counted for as much in language as it does in law I could produce very good evidence to show that cracker English is classic English. Is Chaucer talking plantation English or is Cuffee talking Chaucer English when the one tells us that "the sun uprist" and the other that "the sun has ris"? And when my cracker friend complains of having a "sorry crop" he is but echoing Chaucer's description of a "sorry place." Moreover, we have the high authority of the father of English poetry and of his great contemporary Barbour for such pure crackerisms—I might almost say Africanisms—as "mo," "whar," and "tother," of Mandeville for "right nigh," and of Chaucer and Gower both for that unmitigated Americanism "I guess." The negro is sustained by Caxton, Chaucer, and a host of worthies in saying "axed" for *asked*, and both negro and cracker are talking pure Anglo-Saxon when they emphasize the neuter pronoun *it* into "hit." This pronunciation is very common where the pronoun is emphatic, but I have never heard the *h* with an unstressed *it*. So, also, "ourn," "yourn," "theirn" are relics of the old Saxon inflected pronoun, to which "hisn" and "hern"

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have been conformed by analogy. "Fit-ten," for *fit*, "sposen," for *suppose*, "outen," "abouten," "douten," for *out*, *about*, *with-out*, suggest further reminiscences of the same archaic diction.

Whether the peculiar idiom of the mountaineer, "you'uns" and "we'uns," would admit of a similar explanation I shall not undertake to decide. The fact that it is seldom used in the possessive, which was the case that had the adjectival inflection in Anglo-Saxon, would seem to point to a negative conclusion, though I do not pretend to speak with authority in such learned matters. When used possessively, as it is occasionally in some sections, it is fitted with the modern inflection and expanded into "we'uns's" and "you'uns's." "Them'uns" I have encountered but once, that I remember. It was employed by an old inhabitant of that secluded region around the foot of Sand Mountain, where the three states of Georgia, Alabama, and Tennessee come together, and they are welcome to divide the honor of its paternity among them.

Judge Bleckley, of the Supreme Bench of Georgia, himself a native mountaineer and a most careful and competent observer, writes me :

"I have never heard 'we'uns' or 'them'uns' in the mountains, but 'you'uns' is much in use there, and has been since my earliest recollection. It is not applied in the possessive case, the common form of possessive being 'you'all's,' and I think this form is used only when the speaker refers to a family or group as owners. When the ownership referred to is that of an individual, *your* is used in its purity."

The judge also furnishes me the following list of expressions from the mountain vernacular, all of which, except "oozles" and "fornent," are common among illiterate people in other sections of the state :

narry bit, for none  
right smart, for a considerable quantity  
plum good, for excellent  
axed, for asked  
dassent, for dare not  
critter, for horse or mare  
seed, for saw.  
narry one, for not one  
shore, for sure  
shorely, for surely or certainly  
to scrouge, for to crowd or press

fornent and fornenst, for opposite or against.  
idee, for idea  
right peert, for lively or sprightly  
lots, oozles and oceans, for much  
purty, for pretty  
bimeby, for by and by  
young'un, for baby or infant  
ingerns and inguns, for onions  
knowed, for knew  
hãth, for hearth

"We all" and "you all" are common everywhere in Georgia, even among fairly well-educated people. In the second, the two words are generally run together into one syllable, "y'all." Not long ago, while riding on one of the local trains through middle Georgia, I happened to be seated near a group of country people and overheard one of the women say to her companion, "Did John eat dinner at y'all's house yistiddy?"

The last word illustrates another curious crackerism, the interchanging of the sounds of short *e* and *i*, as a cockney does his vowels and *h*'s. For instance, we have "pin" for *pen* and "pen" for *pin*, "hin" for *hen*, "miny" for *many*, "sence" for *since*, "tell" for *till*, etc. Will some phonologist explain the principle of this inversion?

The word *cracker* is one of those linguistic gypsies that refuse utterly to give any account of themselves. "Bartlett's Dictionary of Americanisms" derives it from *corncrake*, a species of long-legged crane, but the authority of a writer who could seriously define "Palmetto City" as a name for the "city of Augusta, the capital of South Carolina," can hardly be entitled to much respect, if his philology is of a piece with his geography. Mrs. Cunningham, in her "Recollections of a Southern Matron," attributes the name to the cracking of the long whips carried by the class in question as they drove to town in their little carts with loads of pine knots or ground peas to sell. A more probable derivation, it seems to me, would be from "corn cracker," that is, "corn eater," Indian corn in its various forms having been the staple food of both negroes and poor whites before the war. Even now the word *corn* is often used as an intensive of *cracker*, and it is not uncommon to hear an extreme specimen of the genus described as "a regular stomp-down corn cracker."

The meaning of the word seems involved in as much uncertainty as its origin. The dialect stories that have made the southern cracker such a fashionable figure in American literature have, among their other inventions, created the impression that the name applies to a distinct hereditary caste living in a state of perennial ignorance and poverty and shiftlessness, relieved occasionally by impossible virtues and vices that set each other off in the most approved artistic fashion. Now, I have lived all my life in a region where both the word and the thing it represents are indigenous, and I have always heard the word *cracker* employed merely as a synonym for rusticity. Any one who is rustic or awkward or out of date in dress, manner, or speech is properly described, in our Georgia vernacular, as a "cracker" or, in a milder form, as "crackerish." Of course there are crackers and crackers, of every shade and degree, from the "sandhillers" of the piney woods and the "moonshiners" of the mountains to the well-to-do country farmer who has an ambition to "rub his boy's head agin the college." I have heard the word applied to a governor of the state, a judge of the Supreme Court, a United States senator, and a cabinet minister. In the low country, where the great rice and cotton plantations left no room for an intermediate class of small farmers, the crackers, known locally as "sandhillers" because they occupied the poorest and most unproductive land, conformed more nearly to the conventional type of the dialect story, but in the upcountry we are all "crackers" outside the towns and villages, and it is not uncommon to hear a city-bred girl declare laughingly of her country kin, "Oh, cousin Betsy" or "cousin John," as the case may be, "is such an unconscionable cracker!"

As has been said, it is impossible to draw a hard and fast line between the

cracker vernacular, strictly so-called, and those more general provincialisms and vulgarisms that affect the speech of all uneducated people. As Georgia English runs into Chaucer English on the one hand, so it runs into Yankee English on the other, and if you undertake to define strictly the limits of any dialectic variation you very soon find yourself in the predicament of the Alabama congressman who didn't know "where he was at." Not long ago I was asked by a professor of English in a northern university, "Why is it that you southerners *will* always say 'like' for *as*?" The next day I heard a sermon by one of the most noted divines of the northern pulpit—a graduate of Yale, I believe—and almost the first words he uttered were, alluding to some good man he had known in his youth, "I want to love God *like* he did." Now, what becomes of *like*, as a southern provincialism? On the other hand, the harsh, rasping sound of an intruded *a* in such perversions as "caow," "taown," "haow," for *cow*, *town*, and *how*, usually credited to New England, is by no means uncommon at the South, and the excruciating vulgarism of flattening the *a* of such words as *laugh*, *half*, *can't*, etc., into "läfe," "häfe," "caint," is one of the most marked peculiarities of cracker pronunciation.

The truth is, we have no fixed dialectic forms in America. There are localisms and provincialisms of varying shades and limits, but the free American citizen is too ubiquitous to remain long pent up in a corner, and his speech travels and grows with him. There have been marked changes in the dialect peculiarities of the South within my own recollection, and these changes are proceeding with an accelerated velocity that bids fair in the course of a generation or two to render the popular dialect story of to-day as unintelligible as the poems of Cædmon or of Robert Browning.

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## COÖPERATION AMONG BIRDS.

BY COLETTE SMILEY.

THE first time I ever saw anything like coöperation among birds was when I was a child living in what was then a pretty, wild region in the backwoods of northwestern Ohio. My home was on the edge of the solid green forest that stretched away to the north for perhaps a hundred miles with no other break than that made by a narrow trail and a branch of a canal that ran across that corner of the state. The settlers were a hardy set, however, and with axe and fire beat down the giant growths that covered their lands. Oaks, beeches, elms (the meanest wood a farm-maker ever faced), hickories, maples, and even cherries and walnuts were felled into long windrows and then when dry were fired and burned. After the fire had been applied the first time many logs but partly burned were left scattered around, and these were to be gathered in heaps. A man with a good team could do it, though that was a task that strained the muscles and broke the heart of the stoutest.

But this weary, depressing work could be and often was turned into a frolic. Where neighbors agreed they gathered in gangs for a clearing bee or a log-rolling bee. The huge tree trunk that one man with a team could scarcely move was taken in hand by a dozen or a score of men with two or three teams and hustled with a whoop upon the tallest kind of a pile of other logs of equal size. I have seen four men with handspikes make a log of a ton's weight fairly jump; it was a lighter task than to lift one of a hundred pounds when working alone. And how the flames crackled and the blue smoke rose to high heaven on those sunny days of spring! And what fun it was for us youngsters to run about gathering sticks to add to the glowing fires! And how we screamed and laughed when some brawny neighbor picked one of us up and saying that such a fat lump would burn better than shell bark pretended

to toss the chubby one into the flames! That was long ago, but I never see a burning brush heap in these days without a sigh, for I never knew such happy times when young as I had in the old clearings.

It was during a log rolling one day early in June that I first saw coöperation among birds. A big horned owl was routed out of a thick tree top by the work of the men. He flew across the field they were clearing toward the woods beyond. Before his appearance I had noticed only a few birds around. A quail had whistled from a wheat field near the house. A robin or two had been gathering worms from the earth where the men had torn away logs. There were blackbirds, a sparrow or two, and a kingbird in sight most of the time. But now as the owl appeared birds seemed to come swarming from every tree and every bush in sight. The robin screamed the first alarm, though the kingbird was first to hasten to the attack. A pair of blue jays came next, although I had not seen a jay for a month, and while yet I was wondering at the sight the air about the great blinking thief was filled with a cloud of animated feathers. There were at least ten varieties of birds of which I did not know the names, but I remember thinking at the time that a gorgeous Baltimore oriole was the best fighter of the lot for it led even the kingbird in the plunging dashes made at the enemy.

A neighbor who stopped beside me to look for a moment at the flying host said, "Look's like they'd made a bee, don't it?"

That was precisely what they had done. It was a case of coöperation for the common good, and they drove that owl clear out of the neighborhood. Since then I have often seen birds unite for that purpose. The alarm note of one is understood by all species, apparently. I am sure I never saw a baby bird get into trouble and call for help without a crowd of sympathetic old

birds of many kinds coming to the rescue.

Coöperation of a different kind can be seen during the migrating season. Ornithologists say that we do not, as a rule, see the migrating hosts, but only stragglers, or bunches, that gather to join the great throng that goes trooping by at night. However, we see enough to get some idea of the composition of the migrating tides. We all have noticed, for instance, that in a flock of blackbirds just arrived from the South in April there may be found crow blackbirds, redwings, cowbirds, and bobolinks. They are related families—cousins—but here is a union for some purpose when traveling. Robins travel alone, it is said, and so do bluebirds, but where one knows the birds let him observe the throngs that may be found in a handy wood lot in the latter part of September. One may visit the brush in the morning, say, and see nothing save a chipping sparrow. The next day—or even but an hour or two later—another visit shows the brush swaying everywhere. Scarlet tanagers, Maryland yellow-throats, red-eyed vireos, redstarts, thrashers, and thrushes, Blackburnian and black-throated blue warblers—all have gathered there and are searching high and low for food. They talk as they work, talk in the most cheery fashion, though their voices be low and the sounds in no sense a song, save only as a chickadee must needs do more than say peep.

In May almost any of these birds would have pitched fiercely at almost any other kind that came near it. In May it was the usage of bird society to resent the violating of privacy—resent it with fierce words and a sharp beak. In September the irritability—the disposition to get huffy, due to little love affairs and the cares of teasing children—has all passed away. Instead of arguing over sectarian differences the birds all begin to look for the good qualities their neighbors may have and straightway find a plenty of what they look for. Then, too, food is abundant and good cheer creates a kindly disposition. They had occasionally fought for each other when the *raptors* appeared in May, but now that the mellow September days are followed by chill nights they

will all join wings and whirl away to the sunny South.

A curious instance of coöperation among birds is found in the nesting habits of the *ani*, a sort of cuckoo which abounds in the Bahama Islands and is occasionally seen in the southeastern coast states from Pennsylvania around to Louisiana. The females of a flock (the birds always live in flocks) unite to build one nest which all use in turn when laying eggs, and then, the nest having been filled, they all take turns in keeping the eggs warm until the incubation is complete. It seems incredible that in a nest filled with eggs in layers the young could all be reared properly, but the fact is the young grow so rapidly that the first ones hatched get out to make room for the others as they come. And the whole flock unite in caring for the young.

But for the most remarkable examples of coöperation in labor among birds one must go to the tropics. Bates, Belt, Stolzman, and Hudson, the distinguished naturalist authors, have all observed and written about these feathered unions. On the Amazon it appears that a little gray creeper leads a host of insect and worm eaters through the forest. They gather at about nine o'clock and then travel along, some climbing about the trees like a titmouse, searching every angle of the bark for bugs and insect eggs. Others flit from shrub to shrub and from limb to limb gathering winged insects. Others burrow in rotten logs and draw forth a harvest of a different kind. They chatter sociably as they go. Stolzman says the noise of a flock of the kind is like that of a shower of rain on the leaves. It appears that this coöperation is profitable—that the coming of the host stirs up the insect world so much that the average gain of each individual is greatly increased. Moreover it is a sociable gathering. That the birds thoroughly enjoy such associations need not be doubted.

It may not be uninteresting to some of the young folks who read this to know that the little gray creeper who leads the tropical host is supposed by the Indians there to hypnotize the others and lead them on the

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long quest for food. They think, too, that its magic powers may be transmitted. There is nothing in the world so highly prized by the Indian maidens of the region as the dried skin of this little guide to the feathered union. With one of them on her dress she thinks she will surely have a great train of lovers after her. And so it happens, too, for the Indian youths believe that the skin has magic powers for good and become as eager for the girl as she was for the talisman.

Doubtless the gathering of gregarious birds into flocks is a sort of coöperation. Robins as well as blackbirds roost in flocks at night. Barn swallows and tree swallows (the red-breasted and the white-breasted) now build together under the same barn roof. They form colonies for self-protection, and no one ever saw even the fierce sharp-shinned hawk enter one of those colonies. In the tropics the most conspicuous—really the only conspicuous nests are those of the orioles. A tree that towers high above the surrounding forest and has a smooth bark and comparatively few leaves is invariably chosen, and the beautiful hanging pockets swing from slender bare limbs in plain view. One may see a hundred nests on one tree, and that means that a hundred fierce little warriors armed with needle-sharp beaks can be summoned at any moment to repel the attack of swooping hawk or sneaking monkey or crawling snake.

Once upon a time while Olive Thorne Miller and Florence Merriam, two charming writers on bird life, were taking notes in

Lewis County, New York, they found a widowed redstart and her baby in the wood lot. Like all babies the little redstart was constantly teasing for something to eat, and like most mothers the redstart was just wearing herself into the grave trying to supply the demand. And then came the kindly hand of a good-hearted and wholly unselfish neighbor to help her. A jolly bachelor of a chestnut-sided warbler heard the baby cry and saw the weariness of the overworked mother, and he fluttered his wings at the thought that here was a chance to be courteous to one of the other sex without any one being able to say that he had an ulterior purpose in the kindly attentions he might give her. Gathering a goodly worm the bachelor carried it to the baby. At first the poor widow didn't know about that. She might be without her natural protector, but no meddling strangers need think her unable to take care of herself and little one; and she made some pretty harsh remarks to the chestnut-sided warbler. But he, good fellow, did not mind that. He would have taken the baby in his arms and walked up and down to soothe it, had that been the fashion with baby birds, but as it was he kept on bringing worms and other things until even pert little Mrs. Redstart was calmed into a peaceful state of mind and, the baby being satisfied, was able to smooth out her much-rumpled skirts and attend to the gloss of her beautifully contrasted breast and arms. It was a most charming little episode in bird society.

## THE KINDERGARTEN OF THE CHURCH.

BY MARY CHISHOLM FOSTER.

### II.

A.—THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE RACE.

B.—THE STORY METHOD.

C.—PSYCHOLOGY AND PHILOLOGY.

THE development of the individual in connection with the development of the race and of language is a most fascinating and fruitful study. As a former article referred to the desirability of making

truth and beauty attractive to the individual, so we would say that there is, also, an attractiveness to him in a study of the race.

The child, the man, and the woman want to know who lived in the long ago. "What did the people do?" "How did they live?" "How did they treat each other?" "How did they communicate with each other?" they ask.



A sympathy and fellowship with nature in the study of plant life and of animal life should be pursued. Myths, fairy tales, and fables have a place here, indicating how an appreciation of the physical universe may be promoted and how humane treatment of animals may be cultivated. Then comes the recognition of other relationships, which are between human beings, and by stories the child is led into a large unexplored field and his thought is delighted and uplifted. Mr. Felix Adler has given to us a most thoughtful and scientific classification of stories (and no modern teacher is more unremitting in efforts to make truth clear and available than that writer and Miss Blow), sifting carefully "Æsop's Fables," the "Odyssey," the "Iliad," and other classics that the pure and wholesome germ may be given to the child-mind. The child-heart must be reached also, and the filial and ethical relations of life shown to be of high importance. To each other, to their parents, and to God the smallest child bears relationships, as well as to the long-ago men, women, and children, and how to meet the duties of life in harmony with these relationships the kindergarten teaches in its first lessons.

It is in the Bible that the best material for children's stories is to be found. Mr. Adler says, "The narrative of the Bible is fairly saturated with the moral spirit; the moral issues are everywhere in the forefront. The Hebrew people seem to have been endowed with what may be called a moral genius, and especially did they emphasize the filial and fraternal duties to an extent hardly equaled elsewhere." The same writer continues: "Now it is precisely these duties that must be impressed on young children, and hence the biblical stories present us with the very material we require. They cannot in this respect be replaced; there is no other literature in the world that offers what is equal to them in value for this particular object."

The golden rule, illustrated by the story of the good Samaritan, holds the principle of true fraternity, while the story of Adam and Eve makes obedience and the fifth commandment truly attractive. Familiarity with

the narrative is gained by repetition, the old story being as dear to the child as the old doll, and when the authority of the Word is recognized by both teacher and child a permanent force is given to character. There is nothing like the story for teaching truth, and the Teacher by the Sea of Galilee used this best and most attractive method.

It is a necessity for the most extended and thorough teaching of Frœbel's system that the kindergartner have a knowledge of the Bible and be able to give truths sometimes, at least, through its recorded stories.

Psychology and philology are indispensable requisites in this day for any teacher of small children. By this I do not mean that a person must understand all that has been written by Perez, Sully, James, and many other good authorities, but some knowledge, complete and practical as far as it goes, should be acquired. This should be first of the psychology of childhood, and with it should be some systematic child-study, with observations from life and records of the same. To this should be added an outline, at least, of language as developed in the race, and of philology in its technical, and then in its broader, definition. Speech is but an instrument of expressing thought, but it is the only one we refer to now, leaving the language of action for later treatment. Now the story method of showing truth succeeds and is made attractive if it have a naturalness and spontaneity which appeals to the mind and to the heart; both must be reached to be effectual for good. The teacher who has told a story successfully need not make the application, for the alert child-mind has already done that and connected it with some experience in life. It is just here that many Sunday-school teachers fail, for after giving a truth they proceed to illustrate it, denying the child his right of expression. In the limited time of a Sunday-school session it is possible to put the thought and principles of a story before the children and then give them an opportunity of expressing any ideas they may have received, and they may do this in speech or upon the blackboard. In the kindergarten a story-truth may be told in

both speech and action, but to undertake this with kindergarten materials on Sunday results in confusion and superficial teaching.

Too many primary Sunday-school teachers value a "program" more than a principle, and lay more stress upon a machine than upon its work. After many years' experience as both kindergartner and Sunday-school teacher, we can say there is but one way to do kindergarten work and to utilize its games, which are of such educational value, and that is to have a kindergarten each morning. Here, without haste, the children may express themselves in speech, gesture, and by other means, under trained teachers who direct the daily growth of the mind and culture hearts which, all through life, shall influence their service in the world.

The great principles of the kindergarten system may be studied by any primary teacher in the Sunday school, and she will gain thereby a new force in her teaching, and also some knowledge of the best method of awakening a healthy development of the spiritual life of her pupils. Though she may not find it possible to have the complete training of a professional kindergartner, she can use the principles of the kindergarten in her Sunday teaching, and by the aid of strong and helpful literature, now so abundant, she may use the advanced methods of the new education.

It is the aim of kindergartners of the church to promote all these things, and to bring the instruction of little children to the highest standard.

## LARGE OR SMALL DINNER PARTIES?

BY G. VON BEAULIEU.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

**I**N society there are masters and bunglers, but alas! the bunglers are far more numerous than the masters.

Those who frequent society are comprised in three classes: those who seek it for the sake of their positions, those who go to fill up an idle life, and those to whom society supplies a need of heart and mind. To the first society is a duty, to the second a business, often the only business of their lives, over which they sigh and groan continually.

But all these are only social bunglers. They do not consider sociability an art because they do not understand how to live the art, the most difficult of all arts. Women above all should learn to promote sociability in a masterly manner. A close restriction is put upon the husband by his business and after his work is done he has not time nor strength left for other things. The wife should beautify their home and make happiness radiate from it on all who come there—yes, she should send these sunbeams out to dissipate misery, cold, and darkness wherever they are. In the art of sociability it does not suffice to be a good housewife, to

make sacrifices of money, but a woman must also give her good will, her thought, in a word, herself.

I know an old woman not rich nor fair to look upon. Yet she affects others like a magnet: whoever approaches her feels drawn to her. What attracts people to her? She gives no large, elegant parties; no one has to make a duty call on her. Her husband has long been dead, she has been in no strong, select circle, either of artisans, or scholars, citizens, officers, or moneyed aristocracy. She understands one little thing: the art of being sociable. She knows how to make the interests of her guest her own; she brings him sympathy, intelligence; she can mourn with him and, more than that, she can rejoice with him. And the latter is rare, very rare. Sympathy in misfortune is indeed to be found, but sympathy in fortune, genuine, disinterested sympathy is not a common treasure. When you visit this dear old woman for a quiet chat in the twilight hour you may talk to her like a confessor without fear of being misunderstood, without anxiety lest a rash word be carried too far

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### *LARGE OR SMALL DINNER PARTIES?*

for the swing of friendship, resulting in mischief-making or sharp resentment. Ear and heart of my old woman are like a golden receptacle that is not agitated by any troublous blast. You always have the feeling that when you come she is most delighted, that you are her most welcome guest.

Such a visit compared with attendance at a large dinner party will easily throw preference on the side of the small dinner company. Of course the capital housekeeper objects that this advice is easy to talk about but not easy to follow; for you must know that it costs much more trouble and expense to give several small dinner parties than one large one, that people are dissatisfied if they are not all invited at the same time, especially those who are left out. Besides, while she can endure for once to upset the whole household, clear the rooms, banish the children to acquaintances, empty all the china cupboards, get out the silverware, she would not wish to make this hubbub a permanent rule of the house.

Naturally one who must give, or thinks she must give such dinners, "feeds" they are disrespectfully called, to pay off her social debts, does it by wholesale; but she does not know how to practice sociability as an art; to her it is nothing but duty and work. Matters are worse yet when the entertainer is the victim of restricted circumstances; and that is more frequently the case than one would suppose.

At such a "must" entertainment the host often feels like a stranger in his own house. Tables, chairs, table service, candle sticks, lamps are rented, everything not fit for company being crowded into the sleeping room, which looks like a rag-shop. A restaurant furnishes the food; the housewife does not even know what will be served. She sits there with flushed cheeks and keen eyes; she is vexed that that atrocious man, the cook, has sent Weser fish instead of Rhine fish, that there may not be food enough to reach, that the fish and the meat at her party are more bony than at other people's parties, that the ice is beginning to melt, that the hired servants are drinking

too much, and so on. Of course in this frame of mind the housewife cannot bring herself down to conversation; she is very happy if she does not give her neighbor an utterly irrelevant answer. With a stifled sigh of satisfaction she sees the ladies begin to draw on their gloves and the gentlemen to seek their hats. And when the last guest departs with the assurance that he never before had so charming a time, she heaves an honest, deep sigh of relief and says: "God be thanked, that is over for this year."

Once outdoors, some cannot resist remarking: "The whole affair plainly spoke, 'I am trying to and cannot.' Well, they are paid off for this year, I am glad to say. Aside from that I am sorry for them. Persons who have not the wherewithal should not attempt to entertain large companies."

Why, indeed, do they do it? They say it is owing to one's position, it hurts one's career to drop out of fashionable society. As though a worthy man really were rated and promoted on the merit of his "feeds"! The argument has more foundation in the imagination of those it concerns, in their reluctance to, their horror of, doing something unconventional than in reality. Let people have the backbone to acknowledge that they are not well enough off to entertain large companies and can only entertain their friends in a modest manner.

This is the "must" dinner; but what of the "can," or rather the display, dinner?

The latter is conspicuous among the rich people of Berlin; they have few engagements, but on that account the more vanity and ambition. Their parents, often they themselves, are uncertain in the mother tongue. They cultivate art because it is fashionable; they prefer to read trashy literature, but because it is fashionable to do so they take a first-class paper, although they find it stupid; in the theater they prefer the opera, buffoonery, and plays about dowries. The idea that one should go to a tragedy now and then "in order to be able to talk about it," they consider a ridiculous prejudice, still they make the sacrifice for the sake of their standing.

When such a person gives a great ban-

quiet, he possesses, perhaps, everything he shows on the occasion. But what a spread he, too, makes about it! He flaunts it before your eyes far and wide, he flings it in your teeth, just to hear himself talk. He tells you the price of everything, so that you may not fail to realize its value, he urges you to indulge in drink and food, not because they are good, but because they are expensive. His company consists of mixed crowds thrown together. He has obligations to no one, but he seeks to put people under obligations to him. He fishes for the socially great, he hunts for celebrities, he aims at the stars of literature, of art, of knowledge, not because he is interested in what they are doing but because it is considered a fine thing to show a few "names" among his guests. One sees at his house an eminent man and wonders that he is there; if there are several prominent persons present, each defends himself to the others for being there. These stars belong to humanity, they do not know how to say no, they always are getting cornered by some rich candidate of whom they can get rid only on condition that they "grant him the honor." One sees there others who, out of curiosity, have come to scoff and to laugh, and still others who, for the sake of a good dinner, will tolerate the host and hostess into the bargain, whom on other occasions they treat very shabbily.

Often the host does not know his own guest. He has used one of his friends for a step ladder, who has brought along with him college friends, comrades, any one who happened to come in his way; upon arrival they make their bow to the host and hostess, names are murmured, hands are shaken, everybody is very happy, there is an effusive welcome. But it is still more pleasing to get it all over with.

"Everything was fine, my dear," says the host to his wife. "Strictly first-class names, and how they all ate!"

"Yes, but my waiter spilled sauce all over my new brocade buffet cover, so I shall have to send it to the cleaner right straight to-morrow."

"Nobody calls it sauce any more, dear

child; fruit is later. Always keep to the very latest and to Old German. Did we not sit on Luther chairs at one hundred marks apiece?"

"You needn't tell me of it; I can feel it yet," grumbles the aggrieved wife.

That was a big affair, a "can" dinner.

The guests at a dinner where sociability is practiced as an art should comprise a greater number of graces but not of muses than were present on these other occasions; yet graces as well as muses should be merged into table companions. The repast should be simple, so that the entertainers may not be distracted; the food need not be expensive, but should be well prepared; the guests should be people congenial to each other, who have not seen each other for some time, who consequently have not conversed to the exhaustion of each other, and who are delighted to meet unexpectedly.

And you, dear housewife, try to surprise one and another of your guests with little attentions, as well in a choice of companions as of food. Be impartial, cordial, friendly. Pay no heed to outside murmuring, but once you have made your arrangements proceed in them and let outsiders take care of themselves. Drill your servants beforehand, so that your guests need not hear a word of exhortation. If a little accident occurs, do not mind it nor jest about it; but do not fret, for that frame of mind will be unpleasant both to yourself and to others. Be in the conversation heart and soul, but let others do the talking; as for yourself, speak little, hear much. Wait till a sudden hush falls on the company, then enliven the conversation with a question, an objection, a new theme.

Should one of the expected guests fail to arrive do not comment on it to those present, making them feel that the delinquent is the one on whom you had counted the most. Do not make such remarks as: "I cannot imagine why the D's do not put in an appearance; they promised to come." "What could have happened to the X—ens? I am getting anxious." "Is Mr. Z. not here even yet? No? That is too bad. That leaves Miss Abc without an escort to dinner. She

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### OUR WAY AND HIS.

will have to put up with a lady, dear girl." is in each guest, so that he will be astonished at himself and say: "Singular! In that home I always am so contented and easy. Simple as everything is there, one never has as good a time anywhere else as there. Charm to the surface the best that he has there. What is the reason for it?"

Never be guilty of saying such things, and likewise preserve silence on the secrets of preparing the table.

Devote yourself wholly to those who are there. Charm to the surface the best that he has there. What is the reason for it?"

### OUR WAY AND HIS.

BY LUCILE RUTLAND.

A MAN once sinned;—and so the world  
Did pass him by  
With scorning mien and lip out-curved  
In mocking cry.

Beneath its cruel weight of blame  
His sad heart bled;  
Before its scourging lash of shame  
He ever fled;

Until, at last (Oh, sequel sweet  
To human woe!),  
Down at the great world's busy feet  
Death laid him low.

Then, as this strange, new sanctity  
O'er him did brood,  
The world turned all its mockery  
To reverent mood,

Nor named his sin; but, with low breath  
And humbled pride,  
He whom in life it judged, in death  
It justified.

O blind, irrational world, and slow  
To comprehend  
That thy poor judgments cannot go  
Beyond life's end!

The living only are thine own  
To bless or blight;  
The dead are God's—and He alone  
Will judge aright.



## EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

### EASTER DAY.

THE Easter anniversary differs totally from every other. On Christmas Day we celebrate a birth—a common type of human experience. So we also celebrate the birth of Lincoln and of Washington. Other anniversaries are days of victory—of some among many victories—or they are days sacred to the memory of some work, as the signing of the Declaration of Independence. The things celebrated are instances in their several classes of actions or events. But the resurrection of Jesus has no fellow fact. In solitary and awful stupendousness it stands alone. This sublime solitude, this separateness from all other events makes the resurrection a severe test for our modern faith.

Let us suggest some practical helps to a better appreciation of the value of this anniversary—perhaps they may also be helps to faith.

1. How easily we all agree that, if among all the men who have died one were to be chosen as most worthy of this honor, the world's suffrages would unite upon Jesus of Nazareth. He surely best deserved to rise again from the dead. This consent of our hearts to His superiority means more than we think—it is our honor that we choose the pure and gracious son of Mary for the solitary glory of a resurrection.

2. If we were asked to vote again and select the one man whose virtues and deeds would, if perpetuated, best serve the best interests of mankind, we should agree again and select for this honor Jesus of Nazareth. Imagine Him living on always among His fellows of the earth, speaking over and over to every generation His evangel, and touching with His healing hands all our sick in all ages. What other life could be such a benediction?

3. In these suffrages of our human hearts we have unconsciously given a pair of the highest reasons for the resurrection of Jesus;

and in the second one we have covered the place where the rising of Jesus works its perpetual miracle. Dismiss the doubt of science, and we at once see by surveying the facts of the history that to all intents and purposes Jesus of Nazareth has been alive, as no other has been, ever since that first Easter Day. His followers have agreed in all times to think of Him and speak of Him and feel about Him as one who is alive forevermore.

4. We may easily agree also that there would have been no Christianity if the disciples had not believed in the rising of their Lord from the dead. They set forth with this faith in their hearts and on their lips to enrich the world with a living Jesus who should live always, and always cheer, uplift, bless, and heal the children of men. The success of Christianity means that the miracle has been in very fact accomplished. The distinctive honors of this anniversary—if we may write of honors—surround a precious name shining in the solitary splendor of the one human life which goes on always and draws all other lives up toward its manly and spiritual nobility and beauty.

### WORK AS A DISSIPATION.

AMERICANS, more particularly the people of the United States, have shown the world what true industry is, and beyond this have demonstrated that the ancient curse of work can become so fascinating that it changes from an irksome necessity to a luxury, and so adds a strange and fatal dissipation to man's already crowded list.

Mere physical labor is not so often overdone as the various forms of mental work, for the reason that when the mind is put to a great strain the mind worker loses the consciousness of failing strength which causes the manual laborer to take rest. The brain is not aware of its own burning; nor is this at all strange, since in consuming itself it generates the heat which we call enthusiasm.

This is why so many exceptionally brilliant young men and women die early or fail to realize in the end what their beginnings fairly promised.

We see it often stated that "there is no excellence without great labor"; but this is, not true if by great labor we must understand uninterrupted or over-strenuous effort to be meant. It is highly desirable that the worker shall enjoy his work; yet the enjoyment must not take the form of intoxication. A certain amount of labor is safely stimulating and healthful. Over-indulgence results sooner or later in an unnatural demand for an increase, and the worker passes to the state of the morphine eater or the whisky drinker, subjecting himself day by day to greater and greater strain.

In extolling the dignity and beauty of labor, whether manual or intellectual, we should qualify eulogy so as to confine it to labor judiciously indulged in. When work becomes a ceaseless grind for glory or gold it is no longer dignified or beautiful. What is there worthy of righteous admiration in the spectacle of a human being rushing, gasping, straining, from year's end to year's end, merely to do more and more or to grasp more and more? Is not the intemperate worker a mere slave to dissipation?

There is a middle ground lying between the idler and the man who works himself to death, and upon this ground may be sought all the solid comforts and safe luxuries of life. The race is not to the swift, but to the judicious. A long life of reasonable work is better than a short life of intemperate effort. The motto "Strike while the iron is hot" does not mean strike every iron that is hot. Life has little real comfort for the glutton at any board.

"Know thyself" is a command which the laborer must heed. Just what he can safely do must be perfectly clear to every truly successful man; for success means duration

of power, rather than a spurt, no matter how brilliant. The most admirable quality of true greatness is the ease with which it avoids a dangerous strain, while keeping ever along the limit of utmost achievement. Capability properly respected is the distinction of long and laborious lives.

Old countries persist in claiming the right of a higher civilization when compared with us, and the claim must be allowed in at least one regard: they have the virtue of repose. Moreover, they have learned how to make the most of small incomes, which knowledge insures a large part of earthly happiness. Contentment is not another word for shiftlessness; but it cannot exist where work has been distorted by ambition, greed, or avarice into a devouring dissipation.

Our greatest danger as a nation is, perhaps, that we may attain to such dizzy progress, such a tremendous rate of speed in pursuit of all the rewards of work, that we shall lose our grip upon the permanent track of life. The homely saying "Enough of a thing is enough" embodies the safest wisdom of economy. Sharp competition begets a healthy commerce; but when the struggle takes on a purely artificial energy and becomes a competition for mere excitement's sake it is time to consider consequences. The whole body of trade and enterprise takes the form of a gambling operation in which to win at all hazards is the sole object.

We may well turn back again and again to rectify our lives by the immutable standard of nature, in which economy consists in maintaining a healthy equilibrium. For every excess there must be a corresponding retrenchment. For every waste there must be repair; and it must not be forgotten that it often takes more time for recuperation than for loss. At all events, nothing is more certain than that life cannot be all waste without very soon ending in disaster.

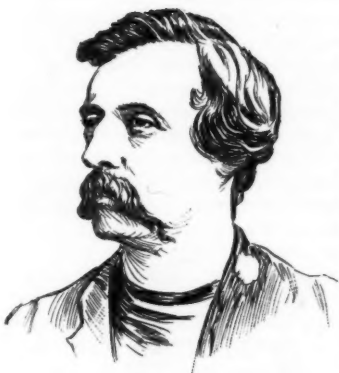
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## CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.\*

### THE SALVATION ARMY DISRUPTED.



COMMANDER BALLINGTON BOOTH.

AFTER nine years in command of the Salvation Army in the United States, Commander and Mrs. Ballington Booth have retired from the Army and have undertaken the organization of an independent movement of the same character. On January 6 Commander Booth received an order from headquarters in London directing him to prepare to resign his command and return to England in about nine weeks. A few weeks later a mass meeting of the Auxiliary League and the general public was held in Carnegie Hall, New York, and resolutions were adopted asking General William Booth to reconsider his order. The order was not reversed, and on February 22 Commander and Mrs. Ballington Booth relinquished the command, stating that they were compelled to do so by a peremptory demand from Commander Herbert Booth, who had come from Toronto with the authority of international headquarters. They declared at the same time that they had purposed to yield their authority to the incoming commissioners, but had informed headquarters that they could not accept a foreign command. Commissioner

Eva Booth was appointed by the London office to direct Army affairs until the arrival of Mr. and Mrs. Booth-Tucker, the commissioners whom General William Booth, commander-in-chief of the Army, has named to succeed the Ballington Booths. No little disaffection was manifested in the ranks on account of Commander and Mrs. Booth's removal, and for a time the entire separation of the American division from the rest of the Army was looked upon as not impossible. Commander and Mrs. Booth, however, expressed themselves as unwilling to lead such a revolt, and later on placed themselves at the head of an independent movement which is to work especially for the middle artisan classes of the country. The movement was inaugurated at a most enthusiastic meeting held in Cooper Union, New York, on the 8th of March. The new organization has taken the name "God's American Volunteers" and the auxiliary is known as the "Defenders' League." Mr. and Mrs. Booth are supported in their new work by large numbers of their former comrades in the Army.

#### *The Record. (Chicago, Ill.)*

Whether the fault of judgment is on the son's side or the father's, both men acted with characteristic firmness. Ballington Booth refused to give up his command, but he also refused to avail himself of an opportunity which, in the hands of an ambitious man, might have been put to selfish account. There can be no doubt that with his strong influence and popularity among the members of the American Army he was in a position to create a revolt in the ranks. It is not beyond the bounds of possibility that he might have led a large part of the Army to secede from General Booth's rule and install the American Army as a separate branch. He was loyal to his father's organization, however, even though he was unwilling to obey one of the general's commands.



MRS. BALLINGTON BOOTH.

#### *The Christian Guardian. (Toronto, Canada.)*

It is, of course, impossible for outsiders to possess themselves of all the facts, but from what can

\*This department, together with the book "The Growth of the American Nation," constitutes a Special C. L. S. C. Course, for the reading of which a seal is given.



COMMISSIONER EVA BOOTH.

be gathered it seems most probable that the persistent, officious dictation of the London office in minor matters was responsible for Commander and Mrs. Booth's retirement. . . . It is well known that the Army is not constituted after the most democratic model, and it is thought that the London office is incapable of understanding the spirit of American institutions, to which the Army must conform in order to succeed in this hemisphere. The present crisis will be a serious blow to the organization.

*The Journal. (Kansas City, Mo.)*

The general belief among those who have closely observed the growth of the organization is that its success in this country is very largely due to the intelligent and wise direction of Mr. Ballington Booth, and that if his administration has displeased his father the change in command means a return to

conditions which will have anything but a tendency to a continuation of its favorable growth.

*The American. (Baltimore, Md.)*

Such work as that of the Army is seriously threatened in its results by dissensions in the ranks of the workers. One branch or the other must be adjudged in the wrong, and that to receive the verdict of condemnation will lose proportionately in influence. Saints may forgive the imperfections of human nature, but sinners hold the good to a very strict account.

*The Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)*

There is doubtless room enough in the United States for at least two organizations to work on Salvation Army principles. The two can teach a grand lesson of Christian unity and brotherly love by working along in harmony, assisting each other whenever possible, and carefully avoiding anything that might look like strife or jealousy.



COMMANDER HERBERT BOOTH.

## THE ANGLO-AMERICAN CONTROVERSY REGARDING VENEZUELA.

EVERYTHING seems now to point to a peaceful settlement of the Venezuela boundary question and to the restoration of complete harmony between Great Britain and the United States. The speeches made at the opening of Parliament not only by the leaders of the opposition but by the government's adherents as well indicated a strong desire for an amicable adjustment of differences. Mr. Arthur J. Balfour, the government leader of the House, said the government saw no reason for criticising the Monroe Doctrine and would not be prevented by diplomatic punctilios or false pride from trying to finally settle the boundary question. Premier Salisbury agreed that the United States' intervention might to some extent conduce to desirable results. The British blue book, prepared by Sir Frederick Pollock, professor of jurisprudence in Oxford University, and presenting Great Britain's side of the matter in dispute was brought before the House of Commons March 6. The receipt of this work will greatly facilitate the investigations of the Venezuelan Boundary Commission. Venezuela presented the first part of her evidence to the commission on March 10 and has appointed Hon. William L. Scruggs of Georgia, ex-United States minister to Venezuela, to represent her as counsel before the commission. During the month there has been considerable discussion regarding the possibility of the boundary dispute being settled by means of a joint commission of two Englishmen and two Americans, but no official action concerning such a body is known to have been taken. There has also been renewed agitation in favor of establishing a perpetual board of arbitration between England and the United States. Numerous meetings to this end have been held in both countries. One especially noteworthy convened in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, on Washington's birthday and

was attended by delegates from Columbus, Boston, St. Paul, and New York. A movement is on foot for a national convention in the interests of peace to be held in Washington at an early date.

(Ind.) *The Evening Post.* (New York, N. Y.)

The speeches in Parliament, combined with Mr. Olney's application for British assistance for our commission, show that after much trouble we have at last got back to the position in which we stood before Mr. Olney wrote his dispatch on the 20th of July last, or, if any one prefers it, in which we stood before the president wrote his message on the 17th of December. A gentlemanly note, such as Mr. Bayard wrote the other day to Lord Salisbury, would have undoubtedly secured the information we are now asking for, without the alarm and loss which have since intervened. The speeches in Parliament show clearly that there is a strong desire on both sides not to quarrel with the United States on any subject, and least of all on the Monroe Doctrine.

(Dem.) *The Globe.* (St. Paul, Minn.)

A more complete and unqualified vindication of the foreign policy of this administration could not be conceived than that which is brought to us by the dispatches announcing the opening of the British Parliament. . . . To have won the united support of the American people was a great triumph for the administration. To have compelled the assent of the legislative body and the executive officials of the nation against which we pitted ourselves is something beyond either expectation or precedent. We do not exaggerate the language or the meaning of the leaders of opinion in England.

(Rep.) *The Tribune.* (New York, N. Y.)

The Schomburgk line seems to play little part in Sir Frederick Pollock's argument. That was to be expected. The fact is, Sir Frederick Pollock has,

in this Venezuelan blue book, made an argument that is "impressively if not irrefragably strong," to quote the *Daily News* of London, but not, as that paper says, for the British case, but for arbitration. He has proved more clearly than any Venezuelan advocate or any American champion of the Monroe Doctrine has yet succeeded in doing the urgent desirability—for the sake of justice, the imperative necessity—of submitting to intelligent and impartial arbitration the title, not merely to the gold-mine region of the Yuruari, but to the whole territory bounded by the Orinoco, the Caroni, and the Essequibo rivers. And that, there is reason to hope, is what the British and Venezuelan governments will speedily agree to do.

(Lib.) *The Daily News.* (London, England.)

The Venezuelan blue book bristles with facts and challenges refutation. We shall be much surprised if it does not strongly impress, with their sense of fairness, the very able men now sitting to consider the matter in Washington. Our case is impressively if not irrefragably strong. But the stronger it is the less reason can Lord Salisbury urge against unconditional arbitration. We are most hopeful that the next step will probably be the appointment of the joint commission.

(Lib.) *The Daily Telegraph.* (London, England.)

We seem to have reached an *impasse* from which arbitration is the only practicable issue. Nobody reading the admirable statement of the British case can doubt that, while maintaining her just rights, England has consistently shown a desire to meet Venezuela half way.

## THE LATEST FRENCH CRISIS.

DURING the month of February complications arose in French politics which threatened to overthrow the ministry and even, as some thought, the very constitution of France. The Senate was dissatisfied with the government for its manner of investigating the southern-railway scandals and particularly with M. Ricard, the minister of justice, for designating Judge Poitevin instead of Judge Rempier to conduct the inquiries, and on February 11 and again on February 15 by vote declared its lack of confidence in the ministry. The Chamber of Deputies, on the other hand, on two separate occasions supported the ministry with large majorities. The ministry, although constitutionally responsible to both Chambers, refused to resign so long as it had the support of the Chamber of Deputies, and a deadlock in legislation was feared. But on February 21, the Senate, while still protesting against what it called "an attack upon the precise provisions of the constitution" and affirming the responsibility of the ministers to both Chambers, declared its unwillingness to suspend legislation and its purpose to continue its deliberations, leaving the



M. BOURGEOIS.  
The French Premier.

country to judge between it and the ministers.



*The Tribune. (New York, N. Y.)*

The French people have shown far too much steadiness of purpose and fitness for self-government to be stampeded now. They have suffered too much from the antics of irresponsible Chambers, split into wrangling factions and careless of all things save political plunder, to commit to such a body unreservedly the welfare of the state. The Senate has taken a wise and patriotic stand, and an uncommonly shrewd and tactful stand as well. It deserves the support of every real friend of the republic, and it will probably receive at least enough of such support to make it victorious in the battle for the constitution.

*The Leader. (Cleveland, O.)*

We do not believe that the French Republic is in the least danger. The old feverish expectation of changes and revolutionary outbreaks which filled Paris when any political crisis came has been re-

placed, it appears, by a feeling of indifference and general confidence that things will come out all right in the end. That is the most solid proof possible that the French Republic is on a sound basis, and that there is no longer danger of revolution whenever some agitator may choose to call upon the Parisian mobs for a crusade against the government.

*The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)*

It is well for the electorate that the defect in the constitution should be revealed so strikingly as to insure its correction in order hereafter. The Bourgeois ministry will not long endure because it does not deserve to endure. Its chief benefit to the country, as future annals will doubtless show, will be that it led the way to enactment of a new clause in the fundamental law that a ministry acceptable to the directly chosen House shall not be thrown out at the sole demand of the Chamber indirectly chosen.

## GOVERNOR FREDERICK THOMAS GREENHALGE.



GOVERNOR FREDERICK T. GREENHALGE.

THE death of Governor Frederick Thomas Greenhalge, which occurred at his home in Lowell, Mass., on March 5, was not an unexpected event, the serious character of his illness having been known for several weeks. The breaking down of Governor Greenhalge seems to have indirectly resulted from overstrain, the social duties of his office having been extremely arduous. For the first time in over twenty years the gubernatorial chair in Massachusetts is vacant. Frederick Thomas Greenhalge was born in Clitheroe, England, July 19, 1842. He came with his parents to this country in 1854 and settled in Lowell, Mass. His education begun in Clitheroe was continued in the Lowell public schools and finished at Harvard College. He entered Harvard in 1859; three years later the death of his father forced him to abandon his studies to become the support of his mother and sisters; he, however, received his degree of A.B. from that institution in 1870. He taught school for a time, studying law in his leisure hours in the office of Brown and Alger in Lowell, Mass. His public life began with service in the common council in 1868 and 1869. He was elected mayor of Lowell by large majorities in 1880 and 1881. In 1888 Mr. Greenhalge was chosen as a member of the Fifty-first Congress, where he acquired reputation as an effective debater and active worker. He was nominated by acclamation by the Republican party for governor of Massachusetts in 1893 and was elected by 20,000 majority. He was re-elected in 1894 and 1895. Governor Greenhalge's successor is Lieutenant-Governor Roger Wolcott of Boston, who, according to the constitution, was officially known as "acting governor" during his illness, and since his death has assumed the duties and powers of governorship and becomes commander-in-chief. It is thought probable that he will be elected governor by the Republicans next fall.

*(Rep.) Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)*

The death of Governor Greenhalge creates in the ranks of Massachusetts' distinguished men a vacancy which is not easily filled, even by a commonwealth that boasts so many able sons, and robs the nation of one who strikingly exemplified the possibilities of the best alien citizenship. An Englishman by birth, the land of his adoption found in

him all the loyalty and uncompromising Americanism that mark the stanchest of our native statesmen. His culture graced, as his wit enlivened, the wide circle in which he moved. His oratory stirred the depths of human nature, and was never enlisted in an unworthy cause. His Republicanism rang true under every test. Tolerant of weakness but intolerant of wrong, he was master of himself

and faithful to every trust reposed in him. Every state in the Union may well lament with Massachusetts the loss of such a man.

(Rep.) *The Journal.* (Boston, Mass.)

His general policy in state affairs was a wise mingling of progress and conservatism. He was assiduous in his attention to the social duties of his position—which have multiplied of late years beyond all reason—to the peril, as the event proved, of his own personal welfare. He aimed to be the governor of all the people, without regard to party, race, or faction. His purpose was understood and appreciated, and his administration received in two immense majorities an extraordinary mark of popular approval. From first to last the public life of

Frederick T. Greenhalge was an honor to himself and to his state. His friends and family may well cherish his memory with pride and his fellow-citizens with gratitude.

*The Budget.* (Boston, Mass.)

Our governor was very near to his people. The tremendous pluralities he repeatedly received testified in language unmistakable of the degree to which his fellow-citizens believed in and trusted him. And not once, from the hour when first he swore allegiance to his state, has he failed to serve, with most rigid uprightness, the welfare of those whom he represented. His record as governor is a noble and glorious crown to a life full of goodness and high achievement.

### AFFAIRS IN CUBA AND THE ACTION IN CONGRESS.

THE messages from Cuba continue to chronicle repeated defeats for the insurgents, but so far "rebels defeated" as used by the Spanish under General Weyler seems to leave the insurgents as irrepressible as it did under General Gomez. The several combinations made by the Spanish troops to crush Maceo and Gomez separately all failed. Early in March uneasiness was caused in official circles by the consolidation just east of the Havana line of forces under Gomez, Maceo, Lacrete, and other Cuban leaders. A battle followed, March 7, in which, Havana reports say, the rebels were defeated with great loss. General Weyler's terrible methods of conducting the war in secret, announced in February, make pale the censorship of the press already instituted; for he has ordered away from the Spanish columns both American and Spanish correspondents. By the same decree he limited their writing concerning the war wholly to the affirmations proclaimed from the palace in official bulletins. Great cruelty shown by General Weyler and threatened retaliation by the Cubans is reported. All travel in the island is stopped and commerce at a standstill. Popular sympathy in the United States is active for the Cubans. On March 5 the Senate and the House almost unanimously passed resolutions, which they made concurrent, stating that in the opinion of Congress the United States should recognize the belligerent rights of both parties at war in Cuba and observe a strict neutrality between them; that the government of the United States should use its good offices and friendly influence to establish the independence of Cuba; that the United States should be prepared to protect legitimate interests of America in Cuba by intervention if necessary; and that Congress pledges its support to the president in carrying out these resolutions. A sub-committee was appointed to consider whether the executive has authority to veto concurrent resolutions. The president and Cabinet are not in favor of according belligerent rights until the Cuban party has established a *de facto* government, and they consider their present information insufficient to warrant any action. On March 9 a resolution was agreed upon requesting the president to communicate to the Senate all available information on the state of affairs in Cuba, especially that touching the interests of the United States. On March 11, a joint resolution was referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations of the Senate authorizing and requesting the president to institute a thorough investigation into the war methods of both the Spanish and belligerents in view of learning whether they adhere to the established rules of civilized warfare or resort to barbarous atrocities.

*The Enquirer.* (Buffalo, N. Y.)

The Republicans in the Senate and in the House have taken the lead in this matter, and though the Democrats are in alliance with them it must be remembered that the former are going directly in the face of party precedent while the latter are casting back to an old party project for the acquisition of Cuba. Twenty years ago there was an insurrection in Cuba which lasted for ten years, and General Grant, a Republican, under the advice of very able Republican politicians, refused to take the course which the Republican leaders now recommend.

*Kansas Capital.* (Topeka, Kan.)

The point to which Congress should give its attention is that this policy of General Weyler is not war. The proclamations and acts of the tyrant, in the common judgment of humanity, relieve this nation from any requirement of international law to stand aloof from the Cuban cause.

*The Herald.* (Binghamton, N. Y.)

General Weyler intimated, when he took charge of affairs in Havana, that he would end the revolution in a month. Now he says he will end it in a year and a half. It is quite evident he knows more

about the revolutionists and their strength than he did before he landed on the island.

*The Times. (Philadelphia, Pa.)*

It is a movement in the interest of humanity, and it is also a movement to extend something like equal rights to Spain and the Cubans. An insurgent army that started upon one end of the island, marched its whole length, amounting to 700 miles, and that today occupies nearly or quite every province of Cuba, cannot be treated by the civilized world as a mere rebellion. It is a revolution. . . . It is Cuba

against its oppressor, and the least that this government can do is to extend equal rights to both the contending parties as far as possible.

*Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)*

It is reported that Spain is negotiating with several European powers, with a view to securing their agreement to a joint protest in the event of President Cleveland's recognizing Cuban belligerency. . . . We need to consider the chances that, in giving Cuba our sympathy, we shall incur the displeasure of Europe, with the possible consequences of it.

#### FOREIGN COMMENT.

*The Matin. (Paris, France.)*

Spain's indignation is justified, but we advise her not to take extreme decisions by which she would injure her own interests.

*The Westminster Gazette. (London, England.)*

The American Congress' action is steadily destroying not only respect abroad but its influence in the conduct of foreign affairs, and the strange result of this rabid republicanism is that it is daily forcing one man more and more into power.

*The Pall Mall Gazette. (London, England.)*

The House of Representatives has done well to smooth the rough edges of the Senate's resolution. The recognition of the rebels need not necessarily be precipitated. If Spain is the conqueror, awkward complications might be brought about. "On the other hand there is nothing to show that General Weyler will fare a jot better than Campos. Great Britain, in any case, is but remotely concerned in the

affair. There is the broad fact that Cuba, under Spain, is perpetually revolting or wanting to revolt. Nobody, therefore, is especially anxious to back Spain through thick and thin, especially through thin.

*The St. James Gazette. (London, England.)*

If war be the result, the jingo politicians may be surprised. We do not see where, outside of the United States, the Americans will find any support for their unlimited policy of aggression.

*The Figaro. (Paris, France.)*

Although President Cleveland is not a man to recoil from a conflict with Spain should his electoral interests require it, he will resist the excitement of Congress. The American statesman will do well not to exasperate Europe with the Monroe Doctrine. It is certain that Spain will not recede and it is difficult to see what benefit the United States will derive from war.

#### FREE-COINAGE LEGISLATION IN CONGRESS.

THE United States Senate on February 1 adopted the free-coinage substitute for the House bond bill by a vote of 42 to 35. The substitute declares that standard silver dollars shall be coined, as provided by the act of 1837, upon the same terms as gold and that the seigniorage on the silver purchased under the act of 1890 shall be coined and silver certificates be at once issued for it. It also provides that the government shall redeem greenbacks and treasury notes in either silver or gold at its own discretion and shall retire national bank notes below the denomination of \$10.00. This substitute suffered a crushing defeat in the House, being rejected February 13 by the committee of the whole and the next day by a formal vote of 215 to 90. The Senate Committee on Finance was not satisfied with the adoption of one free-coinage measure and February 4 reported as a substitute for the House tariff bill a measure which retained only the enacting clauses of the original and added to these a duplicate of the silver bill already adopted. So far all attempts to induce the Senate to act on the original tariff bill have failed and the contest between the free-silver and anti-free-silver Republicans in the Senate has attracted widespread interest.

*(Rep.) Ohio State Journal. (Columbus, O.)*

If the silver party in the Senate are so disposed and think they are strong enough to take protection by the throat and say "Join with us in cheapening the currency of the country or we will unite with the free traders in humbling or cheapening the industry of the country," let them go on. Whom the gods would destroy they first make mad. Senator Platt of Connecticut never loses his head or speaks at random. The present coalition between the silver-

ites and free traders marks, he says, "the end of the silver agitation in this country." It is certainly the beginning of the end. Cheap silver and cheap labor go together. Those who want the one do well to coalesce with those who want the other. The Republican party wants neither.

*(Dem.) The World. (New York, N. Y.)*

The vote in the Senate is insignificant. It does not represent the sentiment of the country, as is clearly shown by the attitude of the House, fresh

from the people, with a heavy majority against the silver craze. The states both of whose senators voted for free silver have a total population of less than twenty millions out of the seventy millions in the country. And even that twenty millions is not truly represented by the senatorial vote, as the largest state in the list—Missouri, with its nearly three millions—has overwhelmingly rejected the free-silver craze since the two senators who misrepresent that state were elected.

(*Ind.*) *The Salt Lake Tribune.* (*Salt Lake City, Ut.*)

The silver question will be on hand in the conventions to vex both parties, and if both parties, under the guidance of such men as John Sherman and Grover Cleveland, please to ignore the demand, then

there will be more work and more agitation, because the gigantic robbery and wholesale spoliation which is now being perpetrated under this high-sounding name of "sound money" will have to be stopped before the silver question will be disposed of.

(*Rep.*) *The Tribune.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

It is not improbable that this decision may prove of great value in international finance. If British and other European investors have been deterred from buying American securities to a large extent by the apprehension that the free-silver craze might at some unexpected moment plunge the currency of this country into disorder, they now have the best reason to dismiss their fears. The House represents the people.

### THE ITALIAN DEFEAT IN ABYSSINIA.

ITALY is passing through a serious crisis brought on by the disastrous defeat of her army in Africa. On March 2 the Italians, about 40,000 strong, under General Baratieri attacked the position held by the army of King Menelik of Abyssinia, estimated at about 60,000, and was overwhelmingly defeated with a loss of over 5,000 men. General Baratieri has been relieved of his command and is succeeded by General Baldissera. The news of the defeat created great excitement throughout Italy, and was the signal for a popular uprising against the government. In the Chamber of Deputies demands were made for the impeachment of Premier Crispi and his ministers, the ministry being constitutionally responsible to that body, and riots broke out in many of the principal cities where attempts were made to call out the reserves. This imbroglio is the result of the effort made by Italy to extend its hold upon Eastern Africa. Italy's possessions in Africa include about 603,000 square miles. The battle of March 2 was fought near Adowa, which is the Abyssinian capital. This region became an Italian protectorate in 1889 by virtue of a treaty between King Humbert and King Menelik, who is recognized as the supreme ruler of Abyssinia. Since the treaty there has been constant friction between the Italians and Abyssinians, which has recently developed in open rebellion and has resulted in the utter defeat of the Italian Army. The policy executed by the government in this aggressive warfare has been opposed by a large portion of the Italian people and has cost not only thousands of lives but has resulted in the overthrow of Crispi's ministry. The condition in Italy is extremely critical. Her obligations to the Triple Alliance have forced her to maintain a military and naval establishment far beyond her strength, in the face of impending bankruptcy and at the cost of oppressive taxation. The defeat at Adowa seriously affects Italy's position in Europe and may forecast a readjustment of the Dreibund. Owing to the gravity of the situation it was thought that King Humbert, who nominates his ministers, would have difficulty in forming a new ministry, but on March 10 the members of a new cabinet were sworn into office, with Marquis di Rudini as prime minister and secretary of the interior and General Ricotti as minister of war. It is stated that King Humbert favors prosecuting the war but the people denounce its continuance. What the outcome will be is not now clear.

*Times-Union.* (*Jacksonville, Fla.*)

The defeat of Baratieri last Sunday cannot fail to weaken the influence of Italy in Europe, and the disaster is one which is well-nigh irreparable in its effects. In addition to demonstrating to the world the weakness of Italy as a military force, it has bred internal strife, which has been brewing for years and which the government will find difficult of suppression.

*The Tribune.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

Thousands of lives and millions of money have been wasted in an attempt to conquer a land which, if conquered, would be valueless. The attempt has ended in disaster. The military prestige of Italy is damaged worse than it would have been by withdrawal from the Triple Alliance. The nation has

sold itself for naught. It thought it was seeking its own aggrandizement and glory when it was merely slaving for a selfish taskmaster. The real object of its struggles was to serve Germany and to fulfill Bismarck's dream of forty years ago.

*The Record.* (*Chicago, Ill.*)

The task awaiting the man who becomes premier of Italy is one that would make any statesman hesitate. The finance system is chaotic—a fabric of debts and taxes. Political feeling runs high and the various factions embitter the quarrel with charges and countercharges of scandalous corruption which, unfortunately, are evidently based upon truth. Above all at the present time the Abyssinian blunder presents a problem the solution of which will excite

popular wrath no matter what course is taken. The Italians would bewail the withdrawal of the troops from Abyssinia, and they just as certainly would condemn any further exports of men and money to keep the fight in progress. It is in such a complication as this that one begins to appreciate the importance of Crispi in Italy and the strong hand which he has been exercising in past months.

*The Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)*

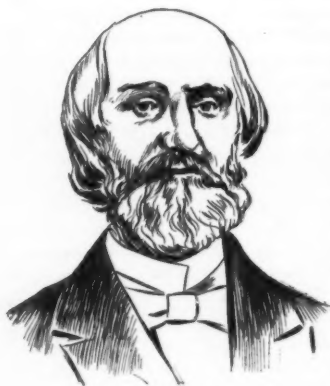
The new Italian ministry, with Marquis di Rudini at the head of the table, is reported to be decidedly Conservative in its leanings, which is probably a good thing for the nation. While the Crispi administration was classified as Conservative, it had advanced ideas on a foreign policy which, in other countries, are characteristic of the Radicals. Rudini is a man of experience, and, although he falls far short of Crispi's ability, as does, indeed, every other of that great Italian's contemporaries, the new premier pos-

sesses a well-stored mind, an adequate conception of the tangled condition of Italy's affairs, both foreign and domestic, and he has the disposition to sink his own views in order that there may be in the new ministry a homogeneous policy. It would seem that the first effort of the premier should be to bring about an *entente* with King Menelik, to the end that Italy may emerge with peace and honor from the Abyssinian campaign. It is to be admitted that in the present excited state of the Italian populace this will not be an easy performance.

*The American. (Baltimore, Md.)*

The effect of the disaster upon the politics of Europe may be of vast importance. The Triple Alliance has been in a shaky condition for a long time. Germany has been paying assiduous court to Russia, and has shown little regard for her allies. She has also so distinctly drawn away from England that actual collision has recently been threatened.

## HENRY CHANDLER BOWEN.



REV. HENRY C. BOWEN.

THE editor and proprietor of *The Independent*, Mr. Henry Chandler Bowen, died of heart failure at his home on Brooklyn Heights February 24. His health had been failing for some years, but his death was sudden. Mr. Bowen was in his eighty-third year, having been born September 11, 1813, at Woodstock, Conn. He was of sturdy New England stock, the son of George and Lydia Bowen. His early education was acquired in his native town, and although ambitious to enter college he was kept busy as a clerk in his father's store until the age of twenty. He then went to New York and became engaged in the dry-goods business, being first associated with Arthur Tappan and finally becoming senior member of the firm of Bowen, Holmes & Co. The house was prosperous until the panic preceding the war, when it was forced to suspend. Mr. Bowen was one of five persons to found *The Independent*. The first issue appeared December 7, 1848, with Dr. Leonard Bacon as chief editor and the Rev. Richard Storrs, Jr., the Rev. Joseph Thompson, and Joshua Leavitt, D. D., associates. It was established as the organ of Congregationalism and was a powerful antislavery advocate. During its early history it was not a financial success, and in a few years Mr. Bowen bought out his associates, and has since remained sole owner. He was an ardent Republican and in 1862 was appointed by President Lincoln collector of internal revenue for the Third New York District, but was removed from office by President Johnson because *The Independent* opposed his policy. Drs. Bacon, Storrs, and Thompson having retired from the editorship of *The Independent*, Henry Ward Beecher, and later Theodore Tilton held that position; on the retirement of Mr. Tilton Mr. Bowen became editor as well as proprietor, and until his death controlled its policy and fortunes. Mr. Bowen was a faithful believer in the Christian church, and conspicuously active in the Congregational denomination. He was instrumental in founding the Congregational Church Building Society, which distributes nearly \$200,000 yearly for churches and parsonages. He retained his love for his native town and left a beautiful park as a memorial.

*The Advance. (Chicago, Ill.)*

Mr. Bowen will be generally accorded a rank among the great journalists of America. Not laying claim to special literary attainment, he knew how to select and employ the talents of others to the building up of a great institution and to the fur-

therance of great ends. With business ability which won him large financial success, he more than once took great financial risks rather than abandon his deepest convictions. He was a man cast in a large mold, a journalist of high and clear ideals and wide sweep of sympathy and purpose and of statesman-



like conceptions, a powerful force for truth and righteousness in many lines, political, social, and religious, throughout the country.

*The Evangelist.* (New York, N. Y.)

A man of true New England spirit and force, peculiarly endowed with the qualities which make a successful organizer and executive, gifted with energy that was tireless and courage that never fal-

tered, Mr. Bowen has been a power in New York of no ordinary kind for over half a century. . . .

To have stood among the founders of Plymouth Church, the Church of the Pilgrims, and of *The Independent*, and to have retained a leading position to this late date, is at once evidence of eminent ability and the high honor of enduring leadership. Men of this sort are rare.

## DEVELOPMENTS IN THE TRANSVAAL AFFAIR.

WITHIN the month several events of importance in connection with the Transvaal have kept the subject before the public mind. Early in February Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, the British colonial secretary, submitted to President Kruger through the governor of Cape Colony a scheme recommending certain so-called reforms in the internal affairs of the Transvaal and invited the president to visit England for a conference. President Kruger resented what he considered an infringement upon the treaty rights of the republic and informed the colonial secretary that he could tolerate no interference in the domestic affairs of the state. About the same time Baron Marschal von Bieberstein, the German minister of foreign affairs, speaking in the Reichstag defined Germany's position, saying that country would uphold the *status quo* of Delagoa Bay, the rights involved in the ownership of the German railways and the maintenance of the independence of the South African Republic as guaranteed by the treaty of 1884. Cecil Rhodes, ex-premier of Cape Colony, after remaining in England scarcely a week started on his return to Rhodesia to resume work for the British Chartered Company, "without," as Mr. Chamberlain said, "the control of a single policeman." The prisoners sent from Pretoria for trial by the British government arrived in England the last week of February. Dr. Jameson and fourteen others were arraigned before the Bow Street police court February 25, charged with warring against a friendly state. Bail was fixed at £2,000 and the prisoners were released on their personal recognizances. If the applause with which Jameson's appearance was greeted is an index of public sentiment, he is a hero in the eyes of the English people.

*The Republican.* (Denver, Col.)

The debate in the Reichstag over the Transvaal affairs brought out the fact that sentiment generally approved the action of the emperor in congratulating President Kruger, but there were expressions indicating a disposition to criticise him for assuming such great responsibility. His dispatch was in harmony with German feeling, but it was going a little too far for him to assume a position that might have led to dangerous foreign complications. The manifestation of this spirit of criticism suggests that there is a strong element in the Reichstag prepared to restrict the emperor within the limits of his prerogatives.

*The American.* (Baltimore, Md.)

President Kruger, of the Transvaal republic, never did a shrewder thing than when he delivered Jameson and his freebooters to the British government to be punished by British law. He thereby avoided infinite embarrassment himself, and will probably cover the British government with confusion. Had he held the invaders and dealt with them under the laws of the republic, they would have been martyrs, no matter how leniently punished, and their imprisonment would have been a rankling sore in British public opinion, incessantly demanding heroic treatment. . . . By delivering these freebooters to the British government, President Kruger imposes upon the latter the obligation to try and

punish them for a very grave offense. The soft language of Mr. Chamberlain will avail nothing in such a case. It is a stern duty he has to perform, and it is very doubtful if he will be able to perform it.

*The Record.* (Chicago, Ill.)

The sturdy Boer president has received the liberal damnation of faint praise, and Dr. Jameson stands a fair show of receiving praise in the form of faint damnation. Meantime, whatever the Bow Street court may do, the British public has already "vindicated" the culprit by its attitude of admiration.

*The Leader.* (Cleveland, O.)

It looks very much as if the plotters who seek to embroil the little Boer state with Great Britain and bring about its downfall would have to work fast if they are to succeed while Kruger lives. He is too wise and prudent to be easily led into their traps, and he is clearly determined to bring about friendly relations with the great mass of English-speaking settlers in the gold fields, if it shall prove possible to do so without taking from his own people the control of their own country. Unfortunately for the Boers, however, President Kruger is an old man, and although he is erect and strong at seventy-five or thereabouts he cannot be expected to guide the course of his people many years longer with the same cool courage and shrewd foresight which have hitherto characterized his leadership.

## LINCOLN'S BIRTHDAY AS A HOLIDAY.

FIVE states of the Union, New York, New Jersey, Illinois, Minnesota, and Washington, observed Lincoln's birthday, the 12th of February, as a legal holiday, and in many other states celebrations occurred. Among the most noteworthy of the speeches made in honor of Lincoln were those of ex-Governor McKinley in Chicago, General O. O. Howard at Burlington, Vermont, Hon. Chauncey M. Depew in New York, ex-Confederate General J. A. Walker, of Virginia, in Boston, and Hon. Booker T. Washington, the well-known freedman, in Brooklyn. The various celebrations and the introduction into Congress of a bill (which was defeated) to make the 12th of February a national holiday caused the press to comment freely upon the advisability of taking such action.

*The Ohio State Journal.* (Columbus, O.)

It would be a happy consummation if the birthday of Abraham Lincoln were set apart as a national holiday, instead of having it celebrated, as now, by one political party. He wrought for the whole country. He was unmoved by the storms and currents of the time, but with infinite patience and consummate skill carved a nation out of a host of discordant elements. Each year adds to the circle of those who worship at Lincoln's shrine. In good time we shall see the republic, North and South, stand uncovered in his mighty presence. Already all loyal hearts are his. On Columbia's calendar of worth and fame his name stands first.

*The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

Much as we revere the memory of Lincoln, we believe that honors peculiar, and unshared with any, should be reserved for Washington. Even many years before his death, and long before he had become president, the custom of celebrating his birth-

day had come into vogue among his fellow-officers, and also among his fellow-citizens, being more and more widely observed each year. This custom should remain an undivided honor.

*The Courier Journal.* (Louisville, Ky.)

There is a good deal of humbug in this business of creating holidays to celebrate the birth of eminent men. A great many men have rendered services to the country that should make their memories dear to the people, but it does not follow that they are specially honored by giving holidays to federal employees while everybody else is engaged at work. It was not by idleness that these men were able to serve their country, but by doing with all their might what was necessary to be done. We have about enough of these so-called national holidays which are not generally observed. New ones should be created with great caution. . . . The safest rule is not to make a holiday by law until the people have made it such by actual observance.

## REBELLION IN NICARAGUA.



GEN. JOSÉ SANTOS ZELAYA.  
President of Nicaragua.

WAR has again broken out in Nicaragua. On the 25th of February it became known that the Departments of the West and North were in open revolt against President Zelaya. The center of the revolt was at Leon and the insurrectionists, led by General Ortiz, an ex-president of the republic, were a faction opposed to the Zelaya wing of the Liberals because of long-standing grievances. Among these were the removal of the capital from Leon to Managua and differences of religious belief. The Conservatives of Granada rallied to the support of the president and an army of 3,000 men with twenty pieces of artillery was quickly put into the field. This force advanced to meet the rebels, who were reported to be 4,000 strong, and on February 27 Nagarote and the next day Momotomba were captured by the government forces. On March 2 the rebels under General Escalon attacked Nagarote and after six or eight hours' fighting were wholly defeated or dispersed. They succeeded in firing the town before they fled. President Zelaya reviewed an army of 5,000 men at Nagarote on the 9th of March and conferred high honors upon the officers

who had distinguished themselves in the recent battle. At that date there was talk of waiting until troops from Honduras were in a position to assist the Nicaraguans before advancing further. The United States steamer *Alert* has been ordered to Corinto to protect American interests in Nicaragua.

*The Republican. (Denver, Col.)*

The revolution in Nicaragua is greatly to be regretted, more especially since it occurs at a time when it was thought that Nicaragua was beginning to appreciate the benefit of orderly government and that prosperity would soon be the rule. The turbulent spirit of the average Spanish-American could not be quiet but had to revolt. It may become necessary for the United States to interfere in order to protect our interests in the proposed canal. Such interference would be a good thing for Nicaragua, for it would establish order and without that it is impossible for the country to prosper.

*The Leader. (Cleveland, O.)*

If there were a great waterway between the Atlantic and the Pacific, in Nicaragua, the property of the canal company and the canal itself would be in

danger of serious injury at the hands of the semi-savages fighting over a local quarrel of no importance to the world. It would be necessary to protect the canal from destruction or blockading, and that work would naturally fall to the power which was most interested. . . . But this country could hardly permit European soldiers to be used as guardians of a great American canal. Their presence would virtually convert the little American state in which they might be stationed into a dependency of the nation taking charge of the canal. That would be such a violation of the Monroe Doctrine as could never be tolerated. . . . That is one of the most important reasons why the great highway of commerce which must soon be opened through the American isthmus will have to be an American enterprise under the control of this republic.

## DR. SANFORD HUNT.



REV. SANFORD HUNT, D.D.

In the death of the Rev. Dr. Sanford Hunt the Methodist Episcopal Church in the United States has lost one of its most prominent members. He died of apoplexy, in Cincinnati, whither he had gone to attend the annual meeting of the Book Committee of his church. Dr. Hunt was the senior member of the firm of Hunt and Eaton, agents of the eastern Methodist Book Concern, and during his long life was closely identified with the affairs of his church. His death came with a severe and sudden shock, as he was in good health when he left home two weeks before. An impressive memorial service was held in Cincinnati February 12 by the Book Committee, and funeral services were conducted at his home in Brooklyn February 15. Dr. Hunt was born in Eden, N. Y., in 1825. He became a member of the Methodist Church at the age of fifteen years and at twenty-two was graduated with honors from Allegheny College, Meadville, Pa. During the same year he joined the Genesee Conference,

of which he was for eight years secretary and for nearly ten years presiding elder. His reputation as a financier was obtained by unremitting labor in church building. He was elected delegate to the General Conference seven times. The degree of D.D. was conferred upon him in 1871 by his *alma mater*. He was first elected one of the heads of the eastern Book Concern of his church by the General Conference in 1879 to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Dr. Reuben Nelson; subsequently he was reelected every four years until the time of his death. By virtue of his position as senior agent of the eastern house he had been, for several years prior to his death, treasurer of the missionary society of the church, in which important office he displayed marked ability. He has written a number of books of value in Methodist literature, among which are "The History of Buffalo Methodism," "A Handbook for Trustees," and "Religious Corporations." The erection of the present home of the Methodist Book Concern in New York, valued at \$1,110,000, was an achievement to which his energy and ability contributed in no small degree.

*Christian Advocate. (New York, N. Y.)*

In all positions he commanded respect, won lifelong friends, made constant additions to the church, administered wisely, was firm, yet conciliatory, and became the confidential adviser of others. Thus inspiring trust in his discretion, and hope by his steady enthusiasm, he brought those things to pass which his reason approved as fitting under the circumstances.

*Zion's Herald. (Boston, Mass.)*

Few are the men who were so generally beloved, revered, and honored by our Methodism. He did his work so loyally and with such unselfish devotion that he had rightly won a peculiar place in the confidence and affection of the entire church. His life was so well balanced, his religion was so pervasive, that he lived on a plane where not even suspicion or misapprehension reached him.

## THE SITUATION IN TURKEY.

As if their atrocities in Armenia were not enough excitement for the Turks, there is imminent a revolution of the young Turkish party. Meanwhile depredations against the Christians in Asia Minor, especially at Erzerum, Harpoot, and Marash, continue with increased aggravation. Whole villages have been demolished, and their thousands of inhabitants have fled to the cities, where, destitute of shelter and clothing these winter months, they wander about begging bread. In Palu and its vicinity the Turks are forcing the Christians to sign away their fields and property. Tax gatherers beat the Armenians to extort from them the money that has been given them to avert starvation. The government post offices, on plea of danger from robbers, refuse to forward money orders to interior districts when applied to by kinsmen of the persecuted. Unofficial almsgiving is suppressed with the order that the sultan in person is managing that work. In spite of these obstacles, by the middle of January one hundred thousand dollars' worth of supplies raised by the Armenian Relief Committee (American) had been distributed successfully among the sufferers by a committee of foreign diplomats and residents in Constantinople working through European consuls and Americans located in the principal cities of the interior. To extend the work of relief by government protection, it was put in charge of Miss Clara Barton, president of the American Red Cross Society. Her preparations for the undertaking were almost completed, when on January 13 the Turkish minister at Washington announced the official refusal of the imperial government to allow "any distribution among its subjects in its own territory by any foreign society, or individuals, however respectable the same may be (as for instance the Red Cross Society), of money collected abroad." Miss Barton resolutely went on to Constantinople, and on February 18, through Minister Terrell, she obtained the sultan's permission to aid the suffering Armenians and promises of his full protection. Her headquarters are at Pera, and her agents have proceeded to Harpoot, Aleppo, and other interior provinces. Notwithstanding this concession, the sultan has negated the promises of Tewfik Pasha, minister of foreign affairs, repeated before Miss Barton, to allow Red Cross distributors of relief to go to Antolia.

*The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)*

It is a curious commentary upon modern diplomacy that while the great powers of Christendom are lying still, each glowering at all the rest and each doing nothing to restrain the bloodthirsty Turk from exterminating the inhabitants of Turkish Armenia, two American women should be carrying on in that desolated district a campaign of peace, of love, and for Christianity. Dr. Grace Kimball, an American medical missionary and one of the chief agents of the Armenian Relief Association in the interior of that ancient kingdom, and, Miss Clara Barton, the president of the Red Cross Society of the United States, at Stamboul are managing an army of which bankers, consuls, consular agents, missionaries, merchants, and colporteurs are the rank and file.

*Evening Star. (Philadelphia, Pa.)*

Whether or not there has been an alliance offensive and defensive between Turkey and Russia is a matter of no moment. The whole civilized world is interested and shocked by the Armenian inhumanities, and if necessary to their prevention the whole civilized world should not only enter a word of protest but that more effective argument, the presence of warships and troops at Constantinople, with a full understanding as to the object of their visit.

*The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)*

Abdul Hamid objects to the people of the United States expending any money to aid such of his subjects as have survived the butcheries of the Kurds

wearing the uniforms of his army and furnished with arms and ammunition from his arsenals. It is this well-known fact that calls for the most prompt and energetic action. If the European powers will not act in unison with our government we ought to act alone and as promptly as the exigencies of the case will admit.

*The Evening Herald. (Binghamton, N. Y.)*

The sultan has granted permission to Clara Barton to enter his empire, not as a representative of the Red Cross Society, however. The sultan will permit individuals whom Minister Terrell names to distribute funds and clothing in the interior of Turkey upon the condition that Turkish officials are kept informed of what is done. The sultan does not love a Christian any more than he did before giving permission for Miss Barton to enter. He simply believes that it is the part of wisdom not to anger the United States more than it is necessary.

*Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)*

As for Miss Barton's mission, it is not easy to understand, all things considered, why it was undertaken, or what good can come of it. It is likely to be costly and without any compensating results. Although the outcome is doubtful, it is undeniable that the time has come for the United States to plainly voice the sentiment of the American people with reference to the intolerable condition of the Christians in Turkey, particularly those who are American citizens.

## RELEASE OF EX-CONSUL WALLER.

THE dispute between France and the United States in regard to John L. Waller, ex-consul for the United States to Madagascar, has been settled amicably to both governments. Mr. Waller (negro), whom the French at Tamatave courtmarshaled in March, 1895, and sentenced to twenty years' solitary confinement under conviction of treasonable communication with the Hovas, was released from Nîmes Prison February 20, having been pardoned by President Faure. The French government granted the release on condition that the United States should claim no indemnity for the arrest, conviction, and imprisonment of the ex-consul. Mr. Waller was also convicted of embezzlement. His friends denounce both charges as a plot to rob him of his property and of valuable concessions in the rubber district granted him by the natives.

(Rep.) *The Leader*. (Cleveland, O.)

Paul Bray, the stepson of John M. Waller, makes a good point against the Democratic administration when he says that Secretary of State Olney withheld from Congress that part of the official correspondence in the Waller case relating to the rights of France in Madagascar at the time the ex-consul was arrested for holding communication with the Hovas government of the island. . . . France was, so far as this government was concerned, simply a filibuster, for the reason that the French protectorate over Madagascar had never been recognized by the United States. Indeed our consuls to Tamatave received their exequaturs from the Hovas government and not from the representative of France, and no citizen of this country had any reason to believe that he was subject to the authority of France in any way while in the island.

(Dem.) *The Times*. (Kansas City, Mo.)

Waller's release makes the record of the foreign policy of this Democratic administration almost complete, and, as far as it goes, completely invulnerable to hostile criticism.

(Rep.) *The Journal*. (Kansas City, Mo.)

When before was an American citizen thrown into a foreign dungeon without shadow or form of law or right and released on the supine promise of the American government that no demand for reparation should be made? This is the crowning act of an administration which has been distinguished for its abject submission to foreign insult. Every American ought to blush for shame at the spectacle.

(Dem.) *The Record*. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

As the event proved, the conduct of the French government in the matter was irreproachably correct; and the release of the prisoner was an amiable concession to the American republic.

(Ind.) *Public Ledger*. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

With the release of John L. Waller from a French prison the "Waller incident" seems to be regarded as closed. . . . It may be added that our state department, after a careful examination of his case, declined to interest itself very heartily in his behalf, and rather intimated that he was guilty of indiscretion, if nothing worse, though scarcely deserving of the severe sentence imposed.

## THE OPENING OF PARLIAMENT AND THE QUEEN'S SPEECH.

THE regular session of the British Parliament opened February 11 and the same day the queen's speech was read before the assembled Lords and Commons. The speech presented a statement of the general relations of the nation to home and foreign questions and offered suggestions for legislative action. The three leading foreign topics, Venezuela, Turkey, and the Transvaal were given prominent place. In regard to Venezuela, the statement was made that the United States had manifested a desire to coöperate in the termination of the differences and hope of a satisfactory settlement was declared. The reference to Turkey expressed deep regret for the Armenian massacres and asserted that the sultan had sanctioned the reform measures. The invasion of the Transvaal was deplored and the promise made that its origin and circumstances shall be made the subject of searching inquiry. The document also contained references to the conclusion of an agreement between France and Great Britain by which the independence of Siam is established, to the delimitation of the boundary separating India and Afghanistan from Russia, and to the expedition against Ashantee. Parliament was urged to give its most earnest attention to the improvement of the naval defenses and was asked to consider the Irish Land Bill, a measure for the formation of an Irish board of agriculture, and measures for mitigating the distress of the agricultural classes.

*The Sun*. (New York, N. Y.)

There is not a word of condemnation for the incursion into the South African Republic of an armed force maintained and controlled by the British South Africa Company, nor is any intention ex-

pressed of punishing that company by a forfeiture of its charter. . . . As to the appalling situation in Armenia, not a word is said about the duty or purpose of the British government to bring the perfidious Turk to book before his infernal plan is carried



out of solving the Armenian problem by the annihilation of the Armenians.

*The Irish World.* (New York, N. Y.)

So far as can be gathered from the rather vague language of the "Queen's Speech," Salisbury has made up his mind to recede from the position he first took up. . . . It may be that England's isolation, as shown by the attitude assumed by the other nations when she and Germany seemed to be on the point of coming to blows, may have had something

to do with Salisbury's conversion to arbitration.

*The Record.* (Chicago, Ill.)

The speech, unfortunately, leaves no chance for a definite conclusion as to the stand of the British ministry toward the Monroe Doctrine, but it is hard to understand why Her Majesty's government should have made even this tacit recognition of the United States' interference unless it meant to imply that such interference was based on plausible and possibly legitimate grounds.

## NANSEN AND THE NORTH POLE.



DR. FRIDTJOF NANSEN.

ship *Fram*, once north of the New Siberian Islands, would drift with the ice in the north-flowing current over the north pole, and then southward to the coast of Greenland. But his discoveries disproving the popular theory of a sea at the north pole account for the change in his plans.

*The Tribune.* (New York, N. Y.)

It is proper that a Norseman should get first to the pole. The old Vikings scoured the sea to America even before Columbus, and long before modern science came to help them penetrate into the far North. The arctic zone is theirs by right. Nobody will begrudge their flag place at the world's axis.

*The Argus.* (Albany, N. Y.)

If Dr. Nansen has discovered the north pole he has done what no record of history shows has been achieved by any other man. He will have destroyed one of the greatest sources for speculation and popular as well as scientific imagination and writings. . . . All the fables of the open Polar Sea, of the maelstrom, and of the legends of mythology will be banished if Dr. Nansen's quest has been successful.

*The Record.* (Chicago, Ill.)

The theory on which Dr. Nansen planned his trip—namely, that he could sail his boat into the ice floe north of Siberia and then drift on the floe across

THE north pole has at last been found, if the most direct news may be believed, and its discoverer, the Norwegian explorer Dr. Fridtjof Nansen, has returned safely from that goal to Ust Yansk, located on the Arctic Ocean at the mouth of the Yana River. The exact date of arrival at the pole is not known, though as Dr. Nansen started on his voyage from Christiania June 24, 1893, there was ample time for him to have made the journey before last spring when rumor first credited him with success. All the news yet substantiated is that sent by the trader Peter Ivanovich Kuchnareff stationed at Ust Yansk, of whom Nansen obtained Eskimo dogs for the expedition, to the merchant Kuchnareff at Yakutsk. His letter dated November 10, was telegraphed on to St. Petersburg by the governor of Irkutsk as follows: "We learn that Dr. Nansen has reached the pole, has discovered hitherto unknown land, and has now returned. Consequently the Arctic Ocean has now been explored." The fact that Dr. Nansen was said to be returning by way of Siberia cast doubt on the report concerning his success, for it was his theory that his stout

the polar site into the Greenland seas—has been bitterly attacked by some explorers and as warmly approved by others. If the present rumor is correct, however, Nansen has failed to establish his own theory, whether he reached the pole or not, for instead of returning by way of Greenland he is said to have been heard from in Siberia again.

*The Inquirer.* (Philadelphia, Pa.)

It has been wondered why Nansen should have returned along the line that he took to reach the North, but that may be because arctic travel is what it has to be, and when a ship is caught in an ice floe it has to go with the floe on whatever current or before whatever wind is blowing. Nansen intended to cross the top of the earth and after he had reached the pole continue south and get into the Pacific through Behring Strait. This may not have been found possible, and so he decided on returning by a safer route. It would really be glad news to the world if the *Fram* should some day before long sail into Archangel harbor from *Ultima Thule*.

## SUMMARY OF NEWS.

## HOME.

February 7. House bill to prohibit prize fights and bull fights in the territories and the District of Columbia is passed.

February 8. The Republican committee of New York endorses the candidacy of Morton for president and decides upon March 24th for the convention in New York City.

February 11. Railway collision on Illinois Central Railroad between passenger and freight trains. Seven men killed.

February 13. It is announced that Senator M. S. Quay is a candidate for president.

February 17. The president sends to the Senate the nomination of William W. Baldwin of New York to be third assistant secretary of state.—Mardi Gras carnival opens at New Orleans.

February 18. The Daughters of the American Revolution hold their fifth annual congress at Washington, D. C.

February 19. Secretary Carlisle awards the bonds of defaulting bidders, amounting to \$4,700,000, to the Morgan syndicate.—The Senate passes the pension and military academy bills; the agricultural bill is passed by the House with provision for free distribution of seeds.

February 20. Preliminaries are arranged for holding an exposition of southern products in Chicago which will open August 1, 1896.

February 21. Proceeds from the sale of bonds bring the gold reserve above the \$100,000,000 mark for the first time since September 7, 1895.—The ram *Katahdin* is commissioned at Brooklyn and the monitor *Monadnock* at Mare Island, Cal.

February 22. Josiah Quincy, at a banquet in Boston, proposes Secretary Olney as Democratic nominee for president.

February 25. A filibustering expedition just about to leave New York for Cuba on the steamer *Bermuda* is captured, and General Garcia and other prominent leaders are taken into custody.

February 27. Lord Dunraven is expelled from the New York Yacht Club by a vote of 31 to 1.

February 28. A resolution to give woman full suffrage is defeated in the Iowa Senate by a vote of 49 to 44.

February 29. The American liner *New York* runs aground near New York Harbor in a dense fog.

March 2. The Senate passes a bill for the increase of the navy, authorizing the addition of 1,000 enlisted men.—The United States Supreme Court decides in favor of the estate of the late Senator Leland Stanford in the suit brought against it by the government to recover \$15,000,000.—The Baltimore & Ohio Railroad is placed in the hands of receivers.

J-Apr.

March 3. The Arkansas Republican State Convention at Little Rock elects delegates to the national convention and instructs them to vote for McKinley.

March 4. The supreme court of Pennsylvania sustains the conviction of H. H. Holmes for the murder of Benjamin F. Peitzel.

## FOREIGN.

February 7. Mrs. Liliuokalani Dominis, ex-queen of Hawaii, is released from imprisonment for participating in the uprising of 1895.

February 10. An aërolite bursts over Madrid; buildings are damaged and many persons injured.

February 11. A revolt takes place in Korea, during which the prime minister and seven other officials are murdered. The king and crown prince take refuge in the Russian legation.

February 12. The Porte issues a proclamation granting amnesty to the Americans who are in possession of Zeitown.

February 14. Prince Boris, eldest son of Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria, is baptized with great ceremony at Sofia, according to the Greek Church.

February 18. John Dillon succeeds Justin McCarthy as chairman of the Irish Parliamentary party.

February 19. Sir John E. Millais is unanimously elected president of the Royal Academy.—At Vienendorp, a suburb of Johannesburg, S. A., much property is destroyed and over 100 persons killed by an explosion of dynamite.

February 28. A motion protesting against federal interference in the school question is carried in the Manitoba Legislature by an overwhelming majority.

## NECROLOGY.

February 6. General Gibbon, commander-in-chief of the military order of the United States. Born 1827.

February 7. William A. English, prominent banker and politician. Democratic candidate for vice president in 1880. Born 1822.

February 12. Charles Louis Ambroise Thomas, celebrated musical composer. Born 1811.

February 15. Mrs. Eliza J. Nicholson ("Pearl Rivers") proprietor and editor of the New Orleans *Daily Picayune*. Born 1849.

February 21. Michael D. Harter, ex-congressman. Born 1846.

February 22. Geo. Dexter Robinson, ex-governor of Massachusetts. Born 1834.—Edgar W. Nye ("Bill Nye") noted humorist. Born 1850.

February 23. Judge Henry Reed, author and lawyer. Born 1846.

## C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

### FOR APRIL.

#### OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

##### *First Week* (ending April 7).

"Initial Studies in American Letters." Chapter VII. concluded.

"Some First Steps in Human Progress." Chapter XV.

##### In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Footprints of Washington."

Sunday Reading for April 5

##### *Second Week* (ending April 14).

"Thinking, Feeling, Doing." Chapters I. and II.

"Some First Steps in Human Progress." Chapters XVI. and XVII.

##### In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Tariff in Legislation."

"Political Party Machinery in the United States."

Sunday Reading for April 12.

##### *Third Week* (ending April 21).

"Thinking, Feeling, Doing." Chapters III. and IV.

"Some First Steps in Human Progress." Chapters XVIII., XIX., and XX.

##### In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Air We Breathe."

Sunday Reading for April 19.

##### *Fourth Week* (ending April 28).

"Thinking, Feeling, Doing." Chapters V. and VI.

"Some First Steps in Human Progress." Chapters XXI. and XXII.

##### In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Biglow Papers."

Sunday Reading for April 26.

#### SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

##### FIRST WEEK.

1. Roll Call—Response to consist of a selection from a favorite author studied in "Initial Studies in American Letters."
2. Military Study—The campaign in New Jersey during the Revolution.
3. Character Sketches—Lafayette, Burgoyne, St. Leger, Arnold, and Rochambeau.
4. Reading—"Dickens in Camp," by Bret Harte.
5. Discussion—The influence of magazines on the literary taste of the people.
6. Questions and Answers in THE CHAUTAUQUAN on "Initial Studies in American Letters."

7. Table Talk—The Red Cross in Armenia.\*

##### SECOND WEEK.

1. Roll Call—Each member of the circle to respond with a selection from his favorite author.
2. General Discussion—The week's reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
3. Essay—Laura Bridgman and schools for deaf mutes.
4. A Study in Natural History—The llama.
5. Experiments in Psychology—See page 22 of the text-book "Thinking, Feeling, Doing."
6. Questions on American Literature and American History and Geography in *The Question Table*.
7. Table Talk—The crisis in the French Cabinet.\*

##### THIRD WEEK.

1. The Lesson.
2. Paper—Localisms and provincialisms in America.
3. Dialect literature and its purpose.
4. Discussion—The influence of gesture and facial expression on the utterance of thought.
5. A Review—Why the various languages interest the anthropologist.
6. Experiments for time of discrimination, choice, and association. See pages 52 and 53 of the text-book "Thinking, Feeling, Doing."
7. Questions on Current History and Psychology in *The Question Table*.
8. General Discussion—The work of the Salvation Army.\*

##### FOURTH WEEK.

1. The Lesson.
2. A Study in Philology—Homophonous words in the English language. Some member of the circle may prepare a list of such words and trace out their origin, primitive meaning, and the changes in form and significance.
3. A Talk—Heroes whom history has proved never to have existed as real men.
4. Essay—Music and its power.
5. Discussion—Physical culture and its relation to the will power.
6. Historical Study—The Mexican War, its causes and results.
7. A Review—Questions and Answers in THE CHAUTAUQUAN on "Thinking, Feeling, Doing" and "Some First Steps in Human Progress."
8. Table Talk—Arctic explorations.\*

\* See *Current History and Opinion*.

# C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

## ON REQUIRED READING FOR APRIL.

### "INITIAL STUDIES IN AMERICAN LETTERS."

P. 204. "*Vraisemblance*." [vrā-sām-blāNs'] A French word meaning probability, the appearance of truth.

P. 206. "Apaches" [ā-pā'chēz]. They once occupied the territory extending from the central part of Texas to the Colorado River. Some of them now live on reservations in Oklahoma.

"Utes" [ū'tēz]. These tribes of Indians formerly occupied the whole of the central and western parts of Colorado and the northeastern part of Utah. They are now confined to reservations in Colorado and Utah.

"Navajoes" [nāv'a-hōz]. They occupy the Navajoe reservation in Utah, New Mexico, and Arizona.

"Mariposa" [ma-rē-pō'sā]. A county in central California which contains the Yosemite Valley and the "big trees of California."

P. 214. "Dénouement" [dā-nōō-mon'; ON is a French nasal and has the sound of *on* in *song*]. French. The raveling of a plot.

"Turgénieff" [tōōr-gā'nēf or toor-ge-nef]. A Russian novelist who died in 1883.

P. 217. "*Dramatis persona*." Latin. The characters represented in a drama.

P. 219. "*Monde*." French. World, society.

P. 220. "Charlatanism" [shār'lā-tan-ism]. Quackery. From a French word for a quack, a mountebank.

### "SOME FIRST STEPS IN HUMAN PROGRESS."

P. 149. "Sta-lag'mite." A deposit formed by water which contains lime dripping on the floors of caverns. It resembles an inverted stalactite.

P. 150. "Märne." A tributary of the Seine River, in northern France, about 300 miles in length.

"Puris" [pōō'rēs]. They are nearly extinct.

P. 152. "Viollet-le-Duc," [vyō-lā'le-dük']. An archaeologist and architect of France. He died at Lausanne in 1879.

P. 156. "Man'dans." A single tribe of Indians numbering about 250, living with other tribes on a reservation in North Dakota.

P. 160. "Al-gon'kin." A name applied to several tribes of Indians who live in the provinces of Quebec and Ontario.

P. 162. "Flensburg." A seaport in northern Prussia.

P. 163. "Catamaran" [kā-ta-ma-rān]. Any craft with twin hulls, whether propelled by steam or by the wind.

P. 164. "De Quatrefages" [dū kātr-fāzh]. A

French author of works on zoölogy and anthropology. He died at Paris in 1892.

P. 176. "Onomatopes" [ō-nóm'a-tōps or ōnō-ma-tōp]. From two Greek words meaning to name and to make.

P. 181. "Mpongwe" [mpōng'gwe].

"A'o-rist." One of the tenses of the Greek verb which expresses an action as completed in time fully past.

P. 182. "Crees" [krēz]. A tribe of Indians numbering about 1700 and living in Manitoba and Assiniboia between the Saskatchewan River and Lake Winnipeg.

P. 186. "*Ἐπίσκοπος*." *Episkopos*, a bishop. The English form is episcopal; the French, *épiscopal*; the Portuguese, *episcopal*; and the Danish, *episkopal*.

"Malayo-Polynesian." Occupying the Malay Peninsula and most of the islands of the Pacific from Madagascar to those islands west of the coast of Chili, except Australia, Tasmania, central Borneo and New Guinea, and a few other large islands.

P. 191. "Otomatics" [ō-tō-māks']. In the early part of this century these Indians lived along the middle course of the Orinoco River, and were noted for their habit of eating clay. They have disappeared from this region and if not entirely extinct they probably live in the interior of the Orinoco Plains.

P. 192. "Mnemonic" [nē-mōn'ik]. From a Greek word meaning mindful, remembering; aiding the memory.

P. 204. "Hi-er-at'ic." Devoted to sacred purposes. A modified form of Egyptian hieroglyphic writing was called hieratic because it was formerly supposed to have been used only for sacred purposes. Another form was called the demotic, or common, because it was used in secular writings.

P. 214. "*Ἰος*." *Ios*.

P. 215. "*Mährchen*" [mēr'ken]. German. Tales.

P. 217. "Phaëton" [fā'e-ton]. The son of Phæbus Apollo, the sun-god, from whom Phaëton obtained permission to drive his chariot, the sun. He could not control the steeds, which, unrestrained, caused great destruction on the earth. For his rashness and presumption Phaëton was killed by a thunderbolt sent by Jupiter.

### "THINKING, FEELING, DOING."

P. 18. "Romanes" [rō-mān'ez]. A naturalist born in Canada in 1848. He died at Oxford in 1894.

"Formicaria." The plural of formicarium; formicaries or ant-hills.

P. 19. "Antennæ" [an-ten'nē]. The plural of

antenna. Organs of feeling attached to the heads of insects and crustacea; they are commonly called feelers.

P. 20. "Larvæ" [lär'vê]. The plural of larva; from a Latin word meaning a ghost, a mask. This word was applied by Linnæus (1707-1778) to the first condition of an insect as it issues from the egg, usually in the form of a caterpillar, in the sense that this stage conceals or masks the true nature of the species. Since the time of this noted naturalist the term has been extended to other animals which undergo a metamorphosis.

P. 22. "Houdin" [hoo-dan'] (1805-1871). He learned the watch-maker's trade but his interest in natural magic and his friendship for a traveling magician induced him to turn his attention to jugglery.

P. 25. "Galilei" [gä-lê-lä'ê]. Galileo. He is commonly called by his Christian name Galileo [gal-i-lê'ô; Italian pronunciation gä-lê-lä'ô]. He was a physicist as well as an astronomer. He died near Florence, Italy, in 1642.

P. 26. "Clairvoyant" [klär-voi'ant]. From a French word meaning clear-sighted, penetrating; seeing or perceiving what is not perceptible to the senses in their normal condition.

P. 33. Si-mul-ta-ne'i-ty. The state or condition of occurring at the same time.

P. 38. "Stop-watch." "A watch which records small fractions of a second, and in which the hands can be stopped at any instant, so as to mark the exact time at which some event occurs; chiefly used in timing races."

P. 51. Geissler [gis'ler]. These tubes received their name from the inventor, Heinrich Geissler (1814-1879), a German who manufactured chemical and physical apparatus at Bonn.

"Induction-coil." It consists of two coils of wire wound on a hollow cylinder in the center of which is a bundle of soft iron wires. One of the coils, the

primary, which is connected with a battery, consists of coarse copper wire wound directly on the cylinder. The fine wire composing the secondary coil, which is often 100 miles in length, is wrapped around the first, from which it is insulated by vulcanite or glass. By rapidly breaking and making the current of electricity which enters the primary coil, a current is produced in the secondary.

"Spark-coil." "A coil of insulated wire connected with the main circuit in a system of electric gas-lighting, the extra spark produced on breaking the circuit of which is employed for electrically igniting gas jets."

P. 65. "Em." Formerly in printing, the portion of a line occupied by the letter *m*; the square of any size of type used as a unit by which to measure the amount of type in a piece of work.

P. 79. "Dynamometer" [dī-nā-mom'e-ter].

P. 80. "Ulysses." The name by which the Romans called Odysseus, the king of Ithaca and the hero of Homer's "Odyssey," which relates the marvelous adventures of Odysseus during the ten years immediately following the fall of Troy. The story tells us that when he returns home he finds his faithful wife, Penelope, besieged with many suitors who have employed the giant beggar Irus as a messenger and guard. By the aid of his son and two servants Odysseus slays the suitors, makes himself known to Penelope, and is reconciled to his people.

P. 85. "Marseillaise" [mär-se-yāz']. A French patriotic song composed in April, 1792. It was soon after arranged for a military band and proved so popular that copies were distributed among the French soldiers, who sang it as they entered Paris, in July, 1792, and as they marched to the attack of the Tuilleries in August of the same year.

"Orgiastic" [ôr-jī-ās'tik]. Having the characteristics of the orgies, ceremonies observed by the ancient Greeks and Romans in honor of Bacchus and characterized by wild revelry.

#### REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN"

##### "THE AIR WE BREATHE."

1. "Sun-boxes." The same as *solaria*. Apartments surrounded by glass placed on the side or top of buildings for the purpose of sun bathing, or exposing the body to the rays of the sun for therapeutic results.

2. "Ther'a-py." From a Greek word meaning medical treatment; therapeutics. It is most frequently used in compound words.

3. "A-sep'tic." Not containing the living germs of putrefaction or disease.

4. "Climato-therapy." *Climato* is an Italian prefix meaning climate; therapeutics of climate, or the influence of climate on disease.

5. "Tubercle bacillus" [bä-sil'us]. In medicine a microscopic vegetable organism discovered by

Robert Koch, a celebrated German physician.

6. "An'thrax." An infectious disease affecting the lower animals, principally cattle and sheep, which is probably caused by the presence of minute organisms in the blood.

7. "Pellagra" [pêl'a-gra]. A disease peculiar to Southern Europe, and characterized by the rose-colored spots of various sizes which appear on the skin.

8. "Syncope" [sing'kô-pê]. In medicine a loss of consciousness; fainting.

9. "Hippocrates" [hi-pôk'ra-têz]. A Greek physician, called "the father of medicine," who lived from 460 B. C. to 377 B. C.

10. "Phasians." People who lived in the ancient town of Phasis, a strongly fortified trading post near



the modern town of Poti in Transcaucasia, and near the eastern extremity of the Black Sea.

11. "Zymotic" [zī-mōt'ic]. From a Greek word meaning fermentation; hence, depending upon fermentation. A zymotic disease is "any disease, such as malaria, typhoid fever, or smallpox, the origin and progress of which are due to the multiplication within the body of a living germ introduced from without."

12. "Sir F. Chantry." An English artist noted chiefly for his portrait sculpture. He lived from 1781 to 1842.

13. "Etiology." The science which treats of causes, especially that which seeks to know the cause of diseases.

"THE BIGLOW PAPERS."

1. "Apage Sathanas." Greek words meaning "Be gone, Satan!"

2. "Patois" [pa-twā']. A dialect peculiar to a locality and used by the illiterate classes; a form of speech which is not in harmony with the pure idioms of a language.

3. "Nueces" [nu-ā'sez].

4. "Palo Alto" [pā-lō āl'tō]. A battlefield in southern Texas near Matamoras.

5. "Resaca de la Palma" [rā-sā'kā dā lā pāl'mā]. A battlefield in Texas near Brownsville.

6. "Chaparral" [chā-pā-rāl']. A dense thicket of evergreen oak or thorny shrubs common in the southwestern part of the United States.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"INITIAL STUDIES IN AMERICAN LETTERS."

1. Q. Who is one of the most original and ingenious of American story-writers? A. Edward Everett Hale.

2. Q. What peculiar art was his? A. The art of making wildly improbable inventions appear like fact by a realistic treatment of details.

3. Q. In reviewing the literary history of the last quarter of a century, what two facts are very evident? A. First that New England has lost its long monopoly, and secondly that a marked feature of the period is the growth of realistic fiction.

4. Q. When did a new era of national expansion begin? A. During the forties.

5. Q. What events gave rise to the literature of this period? A. The admission of Florida as a state, the annexation of Texas, the cession of California, the discovery of gold, and the admission of California as a state in 1850.

6. Q. How did Bret Harte characterize this period? A. As "an era replete with a certain heroic Greek poetry."

7. Q. By what poem was Bret Harte's name made famous? A. By "Plain Language from Truthful James."

8. Q. Who was the most successful imitator of his style in verse? A. John Hay, private secretary to President Lincoln.

9. Q. Whose novels are pictures of rural life in the early days of Indiana? A. Edward Eggleston's.

10. Q. What Indiana poet has attained the rank of a really national poet? A. James Whitcomb Riley.

11. Q. What show that his poetry is not dependent upon dialect for its highest effect? A. His verses in classical English, such as "The South Wind and the Sun" and "Afterwhiles."

12. Q. Who was the author of the most characteristically southern poetry that has ever been written? A. Sidney Lanier.

13. Q. What authors have made northern people familiar with the life of the "moonshiners" in the South? A. Joel Chandler Harris and Miss Murfree.

14. Q. For what is George W. Cable noted? A. For his stories of French-Creole life in Louisiana.

15. Q. What two novelists have helped to shape the movement of recent fiction? A. Henry James, Jr., and William Dean Howells.

16. Q. In what respect are their writings alike? A. Both are analytic in method and realistic in spirit.

"SOME FIRST STEPS IN HUMAN PROGRESS."

1. Q. What houses has nature provided for the use of man? A. Caves.

2. Q. Where were the cave-dwellers very numerous? A. In France.

3. Q. How can we tell the kinds of animals they used for food? A. By the bones scattered through the caverns.

4. Q. Of what nature were the houses used by men of the Neolithic period? A. They were copies of natural caves dug out in the soft rock in the Marne Valley.

5. Q. According to the opinion of some authors what became of the cavemen of France. A. They followed the retreating ice of the glacial period and are to-day the Eskimos.

6. Q. What are used for shelter in the tropical forests of Brazil? A. Rude huts.

7. Q. In what country can the construction of huts be best studied? A. Africa.

8. Q. What two kinds of huts can be found there? A. Permanent constructions to be occu-

pied for years and temporary huts, which, after using, can be taken apart, packed away, and transported.

9. Q. How may the low dome-shaped hut be heightened? A. By excavating the floor or raising the roof.

10. Q. What is the Ainu method of building a house? A. He builds the roof first, raises it on poles, and puts a wall below it.

11. Q. Where do lake-dwellings and pile houses now exist? A. In Venezuela, New Guinea, and in districts in the Malay region.

12. Q. Of what materials were ancient houses made? A. Of wood, stone, or brick.

13. Q. What kind of houses are found among the Iroquois? A. The long-house, rectangular in shape, with vertical walls and pitched roof.

14. Q. Where were the great circular houses found? A. Among the Mandans.

15. Q. Of what are the Pueblo buildings made? A. Of stone or adobe.

16. Q. What fact of peculiar interest is mentioned concerning the houses of savage and barbarous people? A. There is a fixed place in them for each member of the family.

17. Q. How does the condition of the country affect the houses of the people? A. It determines the material, their form, and character.

18. Q. What is the very simplest form of boats? A. The float.

19. Q. How did the men of the stone age make boats? A. By hollowing out the upper side of a log.

20. Q. What primitive forms of boats were evolved from the dug-out canoe? A. Bark canoes, and the skin-covered canoe, or kyak.

21. Q. What is the "coracle"? A. A skin canoe, flat-bottomed, and circular in form.

22. Q. From what pattern were the modern pleasure boats developed? A. From a framework covered with bark or skins.

23. Q. From the raft what boat has been evolved? A. The catamaran.

24. Q. How is the form of a boat modified or affected? A. By the nature of the water in which it is floated, by the use to which it is applied, and by the mode of propulsion.

25. Q. What is one of the truly marvelous achievements of mankind? A. The gaining expression for thought.

26. Q. How does man express thought? A. By means of grimace, gesture, speech, and writing.

27. Q. Where is the best place to study gesture language? A. In a deaf-mute institution.

28. Q. Of what two kinds are natural gestures? A. They either point out an object thought of or they picture it in the air.

29. Q. What are onomatopoes? A. Words which have been produced by repeating or imitating natural noises.

30. Q. What kinds of words probably formed a

considerable part of the primitive language of mankind? A. Imitative sound words, interjections, and exclamations.

31. Q. From what source do most of the words of a language come? A. From what the linguist calls roots.

32. Q. What devices have been used for increasing the range and power of languages? A. Intonation, change in root vowel, reduplication, and compounding.

33. Q. How are ethnic differences shown in a language? A. (1) By the dislike or inability to pronounce certain sounds; (2) by peculiarity in accent; (3) in the character of the roots; (4) in the matter of grammatical agreement and control.

34. Q. Why does language interest the anthropologist? A. It is interesting in determining connection or contact between different races as showing the status of a race or people and as evidence of a grand development and progress.

35. Q. What do the words used in counting show in regard to primitive man? A. How he kept his mind from wandering.

36. Q. What characters does the Indian use in writing? A. Pictures, part pictures, and symbols.

37. Q. Among the North American Indians where did picture-writing gain its fullest development? A. In Mexico.

38. Q. With what did their books deal? A. With religious festivals and the legendary history of the people.

39. Q. How have the Chinese developed written language? A. By the use of pictures, ideograms, phonograms, and determinatives.

40. Q. What important process took place in Egyptian writing, not found in the Chinese? A. The phonogram which at first stood for a word gradually came to represent its initial sound.

41. Q. What is acrology? A. The process of using a character to represent the initial sound of its first meaning.

42. Q. From what was the first alphabet made? A. From the simple phonograms which the Egyptians produced by acrology and which retained little of their picture value.

43. Q. In what qualities of the savage mind with reference to nature does the myth have its origin? A. A tendency to personify everything and a desire to explain everything.

#### "THINKING, FEELING, DOING."

1. Q. What is the fundamental method of all knowledge. A. Observation.

2. Q. What is the first thing to be learned? A. The art of watching.

3. Q. What fundamental rule must be observed in watching? A. The act of watching must not change the person or thing watched.

4. Q. Against what errors must the observer

guard? A. The errors of prejudice, unconscious additions, and untrustworthiness of the senses.

5. Q. Why has mental science not kept pace with the physical sciences in development? A. Because of the late introduction of experiment.

6. Q. How do observation and experiment differ? A. In observation we wait for things to happen; in an experiment we arrange the circumstances so that the thing will happen as we wish.

7. Q. What is the fundamental law of experiment? A. Vary only one circumstance at a time.

8. Q. Into what three grades can experiments be divided? A. (1) Tests; (2) qualitative experiments; (3) quantitative experiments.

9. Q. To what problem in psychology do we naturally turn first? A. To that of willing an act.

10. Q. For measuring small intervals of time what is one of the most convenient methods? A. The graphic method.

11. Q. By experiment what is proved in regard to the time of an action and the time of the will? A. That the act occurs after the will.

12. Q. By what is the rapidity of tapping affected? A. By fatigue, the mental condition, the time of day, habit, and age.

13. Q. What does the author mean by reaction? A. Action in response to a signal.

14. Q. What is meant by reaction-time? A. The time between the moment of the signal and the moment of the act.

15. Q. To obtain the best results in experiments in reaction-time, where should the person experimented upon be placed? A. In an isolated room.

16. Q. How is this room connected with the apparatus with which the experiment is made? A. By telephone.

17. Q. What have these experiments shown in regard to the reaction-time for noises as compared with that for tones? A. It is a trifle shorter than for tones.

18. Q. What is a general law for the reaction-time to touch? A. That a weak touch is answered by a slower reaction than a moderately strong one.

19. Q. How does reaction to cold compare with that to heat? A. The reaction-time for cold is shorter than for heat.

20. Q. Why is a photographer able to get a perfectly natural flash-light picture? A. Because the time required to take the picture is less than the reaction-time for the flash.

21. Q. To what has simple reaction-time led? A. To a method of measuring the time of thought.

22. Q. What is meant by recognition-time? A. The difference in time between a reaction in which recognition is not present and a reaction after recognition takes place.

24. Q. What other fundamental processes of thought have been experimented upon? A. Discrimination, choice, and association.

25. Q. Of what are all our acts complications? A. Of thinking times, simple reaction-times, and action-times.

26. Q. What is the chief value of the experiments in mental and muscular time in fencing? A. They call attention to the experimental study of the psychological elements involved in games, sports, gymnastics, and all sorts of athletic work.

27. Q. How has civilization affected the time of thought? A. It has decreased it.

28. Q. What is the first requisite for increase in mental rapidity? A. A desire for such increase.

29. Q. Which is more efficient, a conscious motive or an unconscious one? A. A conscious motive.

30. Q. What is the most interesting fact discovered by the experiments in steadiness of position? A. When the will is exerted the steadiness of position is increased.

31. Q. How does intellectual excitement affect the will power? A. It increases it.

## THE QUESTION TABLE.

## ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

## AMERICAN LITERATURE.—VII.

1. Who was called "the Laurate of the South" and "the Poet of the Pines"?

2. What brilliant poet and musician in charge of a Confederate vessel to run a blockade was captured and kept for five months in Point Lookout prison?

3. What noted historian was secretary of the navy under President Polk?

4. What historian, who was a friend of Goethe, lived to see his books read by six generations?

5. What two traits give the charm of a true story to Louise May Alcott's "Little Women"?

6. Who has done more than any other author to elevate the juvenile literature of the day?

7. Who is the author of "Kathrina: Her Life and Mine in a Poem" and "Bitter Sweet, a Poem in Dramatic Form"?

8. In Richard Henry Dana's "The Idle Man" and other essays, what aptitude as a critic does the author show?

9. Why did Edward Payson Roe resign his ministerial charge and devote himself to literature?

10. What noted journalist placed a Shakespeare memorial fountain at Stratford-on-Avon, a monument

over Edgar Allan Poe's grave, and one over Leigh Hunt's unmarked grave, gave a stained-glass window for Westminster Abbey in memory of William Cowper and George Herbert, and another for the little church at Bromham in memory of Tom Moore and his wife Bessie Dyke?

#### AMERICAN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.—III.

1. How and when did the Dutch obtain possession of Manhattan Island?
2. By what waters is it surrounded?
3. By what names was New York City called previous to 1674?
4. Why is Wall Street so called?
5. By whom was Staten Island named and why so called?
6. Where is Gardiner's Island and for what is it noted?
7. When and by whom was Albany, N. Y., founded and what name was first given it?
8. Who commanded the English and American forces at New York in 1776?
9. What was the chief Continental fortification in the Hudson Valley during the Revolution? Who superintended the erection of this fortification?
10. In what war did the contending nations fight almost two years before war was declared?

#### PSYCHOLOGY.—VII.

1. Which one of the senses may be called the basic sense, or that from which all the others have developed?
2. What is meant by the temperature sense?
3. What term is applied to the senses taken collectively?
4. What is the result of the combined operations of sensation and perception?
5. In what are sensation and perception alike?
6. What is meant by the term self-consciousness as a faculty of the mind?
7. Of what benefit is the sense of personal identity, or the sameness of self?
8. Of what is self-consciousness the basis?
9. As a faculty, how may intuition be defined?
10. As a product, of what are intuitions concepts?

#### CURRENT EVENTS.—VII.

1. Why was ex-Consul John L. Waller imprisoned?
2. When did the French first found a colony in Madagascar?
3. When and why did France take forcible possession of the seaport of Tamatava?
4. What was the result of the occupation of this seaport?

5. How long since the present French Cabinet was organized?

6. By whom was it formed?

7. When, where, and by whom was the Salvation Army organized?

8. By what name was it first called? When was the present name adopted?

9. When did it begin work in America?

10. What has been done by the republics of Central America toward forming a complete federation?

#### ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR MARCH.

##### AMERICAN LITERATURE.—I.

1. His eulogy on Bryant, the president of the Century Club.
2. His writings are full of puns.
3. Forty-eight hours.
4. His "Commemoration Ode," said to be the finest poem he ever wrote.
5. Her brother N. P. Willis.
6. Thomas Buchanan Read.
7. H. D. Thoreau.
8. His wife Virginia, in both cases.
9. Translations from Goethe.
10. Helen Maria (Hunt) Jackson.

##### AMERICAN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.—II.

1. North Virginia.
2. Captain John Smith in 1616.
3. Charles River; Plymouth; Cape Ann.
4. Cuttyhunk.
5. Martha's Vineyard; Cape Cod.
6. The French.
7. The French names which some of the towns bear.
8. Louisiana; La Salle.
9. The French and Indian War.
10. To Spain.

##### PSYCHOLOGY.—VI.

1. Perception is gaining primary ideas of particular material things present to the senses.
2. Percept.
3. There must be a stimulating agent or some form of contact with the sensory nerves.
4. A complete percept.
5. The cerebral conditions necessary to produce them are not the same.
6. No, the faintest sensations will produce a percept.
7. Perceptions of weight and pressure, and space relations between objects.
8. On the forehead, the temples, and the back of the forearm.
9. To feel an increase of the pressure, one third must be added to the weight already resting on the hand.
10. Only one seven-teenth of the weight lifted.

##### CURRENT EVENTS.—VI.

1. In Western Africa on the coast of the Gulf of Guinea.
2. Coomassie.
3. For its gold and its goldsmiths.
4. St. Louis, June 16, 1896.
5. In 1839; Louis Daguerre and Joseph Niepce of France, and contemporaneously with them William Henry Talbot of England.
6. Sir J. Pauncefoot.
7. President Cleveland; five.
8. To maintain the fund for the redemption of United States treasury notes, or greenbacks.
9. The Morgan-Belmont syndicate; about \$65,000,000.
10. Gold coin; from Europe.

## THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1899.

### CLASS OF 1896.—"TRUTH SEEKERS."

"Truth is eternal."

#### OFFICERS.

*President*—R. C. Browning, Orange, N. J.

*Vice Presidents*—The Rev. Chas. C. Johnson, Arcade, N. Y.; Mrs. Francis W. Parker, Chicago, Ill.; Miss Cynthia I. Boyd, Knoxville, Tenn.; Mrs. Anna Hodgson, Athens, Ga.; F. G. Lewis, Manitoba; Oliver Ellsworth, Niles, Cal.; Mrs. Wheaton Smith, Detroit, Mich.

*Corresponding Secretary*—Miss Anna J. Young, 237 Wylie Ave., Pittsburg, Pa.

*Recording Secretary*—Miss Dora D. McKean, 46 Fiftieth St., Franklin, Pa.

*Treasurer and Class Trustee*—John A. Seaton, Glen Park Place, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—FORGET-ME-NOT.

CLASS EMBLEM—A LAMP.

CLASS COLOR—GRAY.

MEMBERS of '96 are steadily sending in reports and it is evident that the class will be well represented at the many Assemblies to be held this summer. The class has the usual number of those who have struggled through under many disadvantages. One member in apologizing for not filling out the White Seal memoranda alludes to the fact that she is in her seventy-eighth year and that two little orphan grandchildren have been added to her family within the past year, thus occupying her time somewhat to the exclusion of C. L. S. C. interests. Another member writes on sending the name of a recruit for '99, "There are three of us reading here. We are trained nurses of the M. E. Hospital in this place. This is the third member that I have persuaded to read with us, two for '99 and one in the Class of '97." Another member writes, "I have completed the Greek and Roman years but unavoidably omitted the English year. I have thought the matter over, however, and shall try to do double work."

MANY Chautauquans who have fallen a little behind will find that by some extra effort within the next few months they can make up the unfinished readings and thus have the satisfaction of completing a good undertaking.

### CLASS OF 1897.—"THE ROMANS."

"Veni, Vidi, Vici."

#### OFFICERS.

*President*—Prof. F. J. Miller, University of Chicago.

*Vice Presidents*—Prof. Wm. E. Waters, Cincinnati, O.; Mr. A. A. Stagg, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. A. E. Barber, Bethel, Conn.; Miss Jessie Scott, Miss.; Mrs. M. T. Gawthorp, Swarthmore, Pa.; Mrs. G. B. Driscoll, Sidney, O.; Mrs. Carrie V. Shaw-Rice, Tacoma, Wash.; the Rev. James E. Coombs, Victoria, B. C.; Miss Emily Green, New South Wales; Charles E. Boyd, Cambridge, Mass.

*Secretary*—Miss Eva M. Martin, Dayton, O.

*Treasurer and Trustee*—Shirley P. Austin, Meadville, Pa.

CLASS EMBLEM—IVY.

CLASS COLOR—OLD GOLD.

AMONG the '97's in foreign lands who report active interest in the work this year, are four or five members of a circle in New South Wales, several readers in Berkshire, England, two or more in the Hawaiian Islands, and others in Mexico and Bulgaria.

### CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

#### OFFICERS.

*President*—Walter L. Hervey, New York City.

*Vice Presidents*—Clifford Lanier, Montgomery, Ala.; Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.; Dr. Richard T. Ely, Madison, Wis.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York City; the Rev. Mr. Parker, New Orleans, La.; Miss J. Solomon, South Africa; Miss Eliot Henderson, Montreal, Can.; the Rev. Mr. Chalfont China; Dr. J. E. Williams, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. Josephine R. Webber, Waltham, Mass.; Dr. J. W. Hartigan, Morgantown, W. Va.

*Treasurer and Trustee*—The Rev. Mr. Whistler, Kenton, O.

*Secretary*—Miss Elizabeth Brown, Janesville, Wis.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

CLASS COLOR—OLIVE.

MANY members of '98 are improving the opportunity given for the correction and return of memoranda. This indicates an interest in thorough work which speaks well for the members of the Lanier Class. The name of the class has proved very attractive to members in all parts of the country and much latent enthusiasm may be expected to develop when '98 completes its fourth year of work.

### CLASS OF 1899.—"THE PATRIOTS."

"Fidelity, Fraternity."

#### OFFICERS.

*President*—John C. Martin, New York City.

*Vice Presidents*—The Rev. Cyrus B. Hatch, McKeesport, Pa.; Charles Barnard, New York City; Frank G. Carpenter, Washington, D. C.; John Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Charles A. Carlisle, South Bend, Ind.; Edward Marsden, Alaska; William Ashton, Uxbridge, Eng.; Miss Alice P. Haworth, Osaka, Japan; Miss Frances O. Wilson, Tiensin, China; Mrs. Katharine L. Stevenson, Chicago, Ill.

*Secretary*—Miss Isabella F. Smart, Brielle, N. J.

*Treasurer and Building Trustee*—John C. Whitford, Mexico, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEMS—THE FLAG AND THE FERN LEAF.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

THE president of '99 recently had an opportunity to present the Chautauqua work before the National



Editorial Association in Florida. The occasion was one of great interest and many men and women influential in the journalistic profession were brought into closer touch with the work of Chautauqua. The convention officially endorsed the Chautauqua course and it was recommended that the editors so far as possible enroll themselves as members of the Class of '99.

ONE of the oldest members of the Class of '99 is a resident of Towanda, Pa., Mr. J. A. Record. He has recently celebrated his eightieth birthday and has followed the readings with great interest.

#### GRADUATES.

A GRADUATE circle of ten members at Jamaica, L. I., is studying epic poems. Special questions for this work have been prepared for them by the Chautauqua Office, and they have been reading and studying the "Iliad" with great profit.

THE Current History course has been steadily adding to its membership, and busy Chautauquans

who want to take up special lines of work find the reading required by this course just enough to keep them in touch with current thought and yet give them opportunity for other study as well.

TO THE CLASS OF '83: Any members of this class who are willing to help in adding to the furniture of the class cottage at Chautauqua are requested to send such furniture, ornaments, books, botanical or geological specimens, or money to the treasurer, MISS HARRIET EDDY, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Per order A. H. Gardner, President.

TO THE GUILD OF THE SEVEN SEALS: Will each member of the Guild please send to the secretary any items of interest concerning his work in the C. L. S. C.? These items are desired for the purpose of writing a Guild history to be read at Chautauqua in August, 1896. Members are also reminded of the annual dues of twenty-five cents to go toward the defraying of decennial expenses, to take place in 1897.

ANNIE H. GARDNER, Secretary and Treasurer.

#### LOCAL CIRCLES.

##### C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

*"We Study the Word and the Works of God."*

*"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."*

*"Never be Discouraged."*

##### C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.  
BRYANT DAY—November 3.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.  
MILTON DAY—December 9.  
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.  
LANIER DAY—February 3.  
LINCOLN DAY—February 12.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.  
WASHINGTON DAY } —February 22.  
LOWELL DAY }  
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.  
MICHAEL ANGELO DAY—May 10.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.  
EMERSON DAY—May 25.  
HUGH MILLER DAY—June 17.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.  
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.  
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.  
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after first Tuesday.

##### WHAT OUR SECRETARIES ARE DOING.

MRS. K. M. JARVIS of Selma, Ala., recently has been appointed state secretary of Alabama. Mrs. Jarvis expects to be at the Alabama Assembly this summer to take charge of the Round Tables. As a woman of much literary ability and experience her position as state secretary will give her many opportunities to reach those who can be interested in the C. L. S. C. work.

For Oregon Mr. J. R. Greenfield of Portland has been appointed state secretary. Mr. Greenfield is a graduate from both the literary and the law departments of the University of Oregon, but like hundreds of others he finds the Chautauqua course a valuable supplement to his college work. He is president of the largest and most active circle in Portland, and is closely identified with Willamette Valley Chautauqua Association. It is proposed to hold a rally of all Chautauquans in this association

the coming summer at the annual Assembly in Gladstone Park, which is said to be one of the most beautiful natural parks to be found anywhere. This, together with the splendid corps of speakers which the Assembly has been able to secure by coöperating with the other Pacific coast Assemblies, should be sufficient attraction in itself to bring out every available Chautauquan, but arrangements have been made to offer still further inducements to each local circle that will report at once to the state secretary. Mr. Greenfield is an enthusiastic and indefatigable worker at whatever he undertakes and his appointment will undoubtedly add much to the strength of the work in Oregon.

##### NEW CIRCLES.

MEXICO.—A little company of people at Saltillo intend to make up the year's work before the close of the year. The scribe says: "Two of our number

are Mexicans, bright young men who speak English and wish to become familiar with our literature."

BRITISH INDIA.—At Poonah the Association for the Study of the Jewish Religion enrolled on November 3 among Chautauqua circles in the department of Jewish studies. A president, vice president, and secretary were elected who also were to act as committee on instruction. Twenty members were enrolled of whom eighteen are reading at Poonah and three at sub-stations.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Seven enrollments in the C. L. S. C. are received from New Hampton.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Boston Chautauquans report that "the local work in the Temple Adath Israel goes on enthusiastically, each succeeding meeting being pronounced more successful and profitable than the preceding." At the last meeting the large audience present was treated to the preliminary talk on "Prophecy and Prophets in Israel," followed by three excellent and scholarly papers on "Haggai," "Zachariah," and "Malachi." A decidedly interesting discussion ensued on the Jewish and Christian interpretations of the prophets.

CONNECTICUT.—A minister of New Haven has sent for the guides arranged for the study of the "History of the Jews."

NEW YORK.—Marble City Circle of Gouverneur is small, but its members meet often and are doing good work.—A circle with twelve enrolled members has been organized in New York with headquarters in the West End Presbyterian church.—A number of nobly ambitious women at Strykersville are pursuing the course as scheduled in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. They call their C. L. S. C. Alpha.—There is a live circle at West Valley.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The First United Presbyterian Church of Philadelphia has organized a C. L. S. C. —"On the evening of September 27, a preliminary meeting of the C. L. S. C. was held at the residence of a graduate of 1895, Allegheny, for the purpose of organizing a circle for 1895-6. At the next meeting officers were duly elected and the circle took the name of Longfellow. This circle," continues the secretary, "has since held regular meetings and has taken up the Chautauqua studies with great earnestness and profit. We now have ten members and look forward to a profitable and pleasant year of study."—At South Easton eight persons are engaged in the Chautauqua course.

TEXAS.—Some of the members of the circle at Brenham wisely aspire to take examinations on their year's work.—Presbyterian C. L. S. C. at Houston meets in the church parlors. Though its organization is not complete it is a very promising society.—Nine Chautauquans at Manchester Mills join the C. L. S. C. with the prospect of finishing the full course and graduating as '96's.—The circle at Waxahachie has sixteen readers and expects more.

OHIO.—Prosperity is evident in the Knowledge Seekers of Haverhill and the circle at Navarre.—The sixteen Gleaners at Toledo have kept up their reading in both the text-books and magazine, meeting every Tuesday evening at their various houses.

ILLINOIS.—At Danville a class of twenty, most of them C. L. S. C. graduates, are interested in the foreign travel course.—At Quincy a student is availing herself of Chautauqua helps in her study of the history and literature of the Second Jewish Commonwealth.—The founder of the new Isaiah Temple of Chicago expects to introduce Chautauqua work among his congregation.—Evansville's circle of '99's is flourishing.

MINNESOTA.—Fleur de Lis C. L. S. C. of Thief River Falls is in a flourishing condition.—The circle at Barrett is prospering.

IOWA.—Blairstown Chautauquans, eleven in number, enroll in the Class of '99.—At the close of the Waterloo Chautauqua Assembly last summer, a class was organized at Waterloo and an efficient president and secretary installed. Through the untiring efforts of these officers the circle has grown until it now numbers eighty-eight active, enthusiastic members, all registered at the general office. This organization, known as the Waterloo Chautauqua Assembly Circle, is divided into four neighborhood circles, but has one general meeting.—Though Gilman has only three hundred inhabitants it has a Chautauqua circle of eighteen members, who follow the work as given in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.—Letters from Colfax, Des Moines, Newton, Cedar Falls, Oskaloosa, Prairie City, and Manchester report unusual interest in the work.

MISSOURI.—Church Circle at Sedalia and the study club formed at Kansas City are promising societies.—"The C. L. S. C. of Carthage," writes the secretary of that place, "has been in the regular work for three months past, with the full limit of members, twenty. A great deal of enthusiasm has been manifested all year. The *Question Table* and *Word Studies* are used and each member brings in news items on her topic, which together with questions prepared on magazine articles, program suggested, and general review of books makes the two hours seem very short. A critic is appointed the first meeting in every month, which makes us more particular and is quite a help to our efforts. We meet from house to house and our work is mapped out by a program committee appointed for the year."

KANSAS.—In his account of the Chautauqua circle at Pittsburg the secretary says: "We have an enrolled membership of thirty-three, and a more enthusiastic circle would be hard to find. The interest seems to grow at every meeting. We meet every Monday evening and follow out precisely the program given in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. We have

named our circle Ad Astra. The members consist of school teachers, young lawyers, doctors, dentists, etc. I think the greater part of them are striving for medals."

NEBRASKA.—The Bible course has been undertaken at Lexington by six Chautauqua graduates from the Lexington Married Ladies' Circle and one who has not hitherto been connected with the C. L. S. C.—The following encouraging notes are extracts from the state secretary's budget of Nebraska news: "The readers of the circle at McCook, the first circle organized in that city, are keeping up unflagging interest and hold enthusiastic meetings.—The first circle formed in Wayne County was organized by the county secretary at Wayne with a membership of about forty which numbers many prominent citizens of the place.—Maclean Circle, which was organized late in 1895 at Hastings, and whose members are enrolled in the Central Circle, is doing progressive work. Its president writes: 'I already feel the benefit of enforced system.'—A lady living at Humphrey enrolled as an individual reader. A little personal work arrested thought and awakened interest, resulting in the organization of a circle of thirteen.—A circle at Rising is prosecuting the work with unflinching zeal."

SOUTH DAKOTA.—A Chautauqua Circle of thirteen '99's and two '98's has been organized at Dell Rapids. With its constituents earnest and leaders competent, it is making fine progress.

CALIFORNIA.—There is prospect that a delightful circle soon will be in running order at Bush Street Temple, San Francisco. The rabbi of the temple is much interested in the work.

COLORADO.—A circle was organized last October at Salida. It consists of seven earnest workers, who rejoice in the progress they are making.

OREGON.—Homathedion Circle, consisting of six busy officers in the state reform school, was organized in October at Salem. The interest of the members in the readings on American history rejoices the heart of the founder of the circle, himself a Chautauquan since '85 and a graduate of '89 but still as interested in the work as when he began it.

IDAHO.—There is a charming circle at Silver City.

#### OLD CIRCLES.

MAINE.—The local circle at Fryeburg continues the readings though not attempting to master all of the required books.

CONNECTICUT.—The secretary at Wapping writes: "Hawthorne Chautauqua Circle commenced its fourth year with greatly increased interest and the addition of several new members. The Chautauqua circle is recognized in this little community as a force for good, developing the mind and strengthening the church. Individual members give frequent testimony of the help they have received

from the Chautauqua course of reading and from meeting weekly in the circle." One loyal Chautauqua mother says she rejoices in her efforts to keep up in her reading because of the help she has gained from it.

NEW YORK.—At Adams the Progressives, twenty-seven in number, are busy in their third year of C. L. S. C. work. They have a composite course and are doing good work. Meetings are held fortnightly.—This year the Canandaigua circle has nine new members who are taking the full course and three new members who with several of the graduates are taking the Current History course. The leader tries to bring to the attention of the circle the interesting events of the day. One evening, in addition to the lesson, he entertained the class with quantities of photographs of the city of Washington; another evening, following the death of Eugene Field, with a sketch of this poet's life and readings from his prose and poetry; at another time with a talk on the Atlanta Exposition with all the illustrated papers to be had containing views, and at still another time with a sketch of Dr. Samuel F. Smith. Some in the circle say their meetings never were more interesting.—The class at Hall's Corners is doing excellent work.—Encouraging reports are received from Gorham and Geneva.—The circle at Waterloo is thriving.—Chautauqua circle P. H. C. of Jamestown initiated four new members and received seven applications for membership at a January meeting. An entertaining program was closed with remarks from members of visiting lodges. The circle accepted an invitation to attend an entertainment and banquet to be given by Falconer Circle February 19.—Chautauquans at Bloomville are flourishing.—On the evening of January 14, the No Name Circle of Brooklyn enjoyed a social preceded by a delightful program. In response to roll call, an incident of the new year was narrated by each member. The following "Greeting to the New Year" was given by Mrs. Wm. Fawcett:

"We hail thee, glad New Year!

Though yet may not appear

What thou shalt bring;

Though like the spring you stand

Silent, with close shut hand,

The joy of this fair land

Is, God's thy King.

"Should pain or loss betide,

The storm we will outide,

Kept by His grace.

Should light and love and peace

And all our joys increase

We'll sing His praise, nor cease

'Till face to face.

"And so we greet thee, friend!

With hope and trust will blend

With hail to thee!

Young monarch, may thy reign

Be bright, without a stain,

And peace and right remain

O'er land and sea."

—Delaware Circle of Buffalo reports twenty regular and fifteen local members. They meet once a month on Friday from one to three o'clock.—A member of the circle at Sandy Creek, who did last year's work without joining the Central Circle, wisely requests last year's questions to be sent with this year's.—Park Circle of Utica is on its second year's work. "The enrollment is about sixty, and the average attendance for the seventeen meetings of the year to present writing is thirty-seven and a half. The circle is unsectarian and communicants of five or six denominations compose its membership. Monthly socials are held and a monthly paper in manuscript, called *The Arrow*, is issued. The meetings are conducted by the pastor of the Park Baptist Church."—Eureka Circle of Woodlawn has received an addition to its membership roll.

NEW JERSEY.—At the time of its last report Round Table Circle of Jersey City was about to give a leap-year sociable to the Chautauquans of the county. This society holds interesting sessions. Faithful work and pleasant meetings are the rule of circles in Jersey City. Circles Grace, Beach, Simpson, Central Avenue, Y. M. C. A., Culver, Centenary E. L., and Una, all are making commendable strides toward the desired C. L. S. C. goal.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The circle at Millville is a real live one. Its fifteen members are nearly all new in the work. They meet every Wednesday and are delighted with the course.—In its regular meetings Progressive Circle of the Young Folks' Reading Union in Philadelphia continues faithfully to follow the lines of reading in Jewish history and the programs arranged. This circle proposes to hold an open meeting in the near future. Members of Pioneer Circle, also of Philadelphia, have entered upon the study of the Talmudic epoch. The library of Rodeph Shalom congregation has established an alcove of Judaism with special reference to the needs of readers in the Jewish Chautauqua courses.—The circle at Sellersville, which has added a number of '99's to its ranks this year, recently has given the Chautauqua Extension Lectures on Social Science with most encouraging results. The president writes: "Quizzes were conducted after each lecture, which led to most interesting and instructive discussions. People of the town seemed highly interested in our course and the small fund which we have secured is intended to help start a county organization."

SOUTH CAROLINA.—White Rose Circle of Yorkville sends an exhilarating array of names for enrollment.

ILLINOIS.—"The Clonians of Elmwood send greeting to other C. L. S. C.'s and hope they are as interested in the work as we are. We have ten members, not a large circle but an earnest one. All but

two of the members are married women. There is a circle of young people here who are doing well. The Clonians are bound to show marked progress in their work and it is pleasant and inspiring to know that so many are interested and engaged in the same work."

KANSAS.—Sunflower Circle of Wichita has enlarged its circumference to embrace eight new enrolled members.

NEBRASKA.—"Rising City has a progressing circle of fourteen members," writes the C. L. S. C. secretary at that place. "The class was organized in 1893 and is growing in interest each year. A code of by-laws has been adopted, by which the class is governed. Before joining, each person must know what is expected of the members, and their cheerful compliance therewith has been of much benefit to the circle. Last year's work was finished on June 25. After the lesson each member present gave a historical sketch of characters which had been studied during the year. This was followed by a sumptuous banquet. Our faithful president is serving his third year. He assigns the work according to his discretion and all members respond the best they can."

NEVADA.—Virginia City Chautauquans are progressing in their C. L. S. C. work.

CALIFORNIA.—The sixty-two members of the circle at Placerville now are doing excellent work. When they reorganized in October they framed a new order, not allowing any honorary members and requiring all members to pay the enrollment fee.—Chautauqua work is going on at Centerville and Pasadena.

#### THE SALEM INTER-STATE CHAUTAUQUA.

THIS Assembly, held at Salem, Nebraska, has closed a very successful session and reports an attendance more than double that of any previous year. Rev. David H. Shields of West Virginia acted as superintendent of instruction, and work was carried on in three departments: biblical exposition under J. Vincent Rosewame, music under Prof. G. A. Spelbring, C. L. S. C. instruction under Prof. W. H. Dana. Prof. Dana's talks aroused much enthusiasm and induced many persons to plan for the organization of local circles upon their return to their homes. It is hoped that 1896 will bring a number of graduates to the Assembly. O. W. Davis of Salem, Nebraska, secretary and manager of the Assembly, arranged for a series of interesting platform lectures which were delivered by Eli Perkins, Hon. H. W. J. Ham of Ga., Rev. D. H. Shields, of W. Va., Rev. J. R. Hicks of St. Louis, Mo., Prof. W. H. Dana of Warren, O., Hon. W. J. Bryan, Hon. F. W. Collins of Lincoln, Neb., J. Vincent Rosewame, and others.

All in all, the season was a highly enjoyable one.

## TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

Philosophy  
and Science.

In these days of rapid progress in all branches of learning, the average intelligent American must know something of the scientific world. This is made comparatively easy for him by the numerous books prepared specially for busy people. Because of its great utility in commercial life, electricity is, perhaps, a subject of the greatest interest to the general public and one with which the average reader is not very familiar. For such, alternating currents have been explained in a little volume\* prepared by Edwin J. Houston, Ph.D., and A. E. Kennelly, Sc.D. In simple language technical terms are defined, and by a multitude of illustrations and the simple descriptions accompanying them a knowledge may be gained of the various appliances necessary to produce and utilize these currents.

Another volume on electrical science† has been provided by Philip Atkinson, A. M., Ph. D., author of several works on the same subject. The elementary principles of static electricity, electric batteries, dynamos, electric motors, and magnetism are carefully explained. The application of electricity to the telephone and telegraph, to heating and lighting are also tersely described, which with the numerous illustrations throughout the book form a work well adapted to supply the general reader with accurate information in regard to the nature and applications of electricity.

The study of natural phenomena will prove a most delightful task if one but understands some of the simple laws which govern the universe. A volume entitled "The Forces of Nature"‡ throws much light on these laws and the various classes of phenomena which occur in nature. The first part of the volume is an astronomy, geology, physics, and chemistry, compacted in a few pages, while the second gives many short, interesting articles on such subjects as: "Spontaneous Combustion," "Spontaneous Generation," "Geologic Change," and "Argon," the newly discovered property of the atmosphere. It is a valuable book for busy, workaday people.

Those interested in science, particularly the naturalist, will welcome Vol. V. of "The Cambridge

Natural History,"\* three fourths of which are devoted to insect life and the remainder to myriapods and peripatus. The brief sketches of the habits of these members of the animal kingdom, with the descriptions and illustrations of their anatomical structure, make entertaining as well as instructive reading.

The would-be student of the Spencerian philosophy will find his work greatly lightened by "An Introduction to the Philosophy of Herbert Spencer"† which the author says in the preface was written to furnish a helpful guide or "outline-map" for those who would undertake the study of the voluminous writings of this philosopher. An interesting biographical sketch which forms the first chapter of the book traces the life of Spencer up to 1860 when the prospectus of his synthetic philosophy was published, which is reproduced in a later chapter of this volume. As an exposition it will be a valuable aid to the student and of interest to the general reader who wishes to keep in touch with philosophical thought.

To the scientist and philosopher the essays of Thomas H. Huxley are always a source of pleasure, not only on account of the pleasing, graceful style but for the thoughts which they arouse. He therefore will be glad to read "Evolution and Ethics,"‡ a discourse delivered before Oxford University and published in book form with two other essays, "Science and Morals" and "Capital—The Mother of Labour." The volume also includes "Social Diseases and Worse Remedies," a series of "letters on the 'Darkest England' scheme" published first in a London newspaper and afterward as a pamphlet.

Fiction. Bound by the unwelcome terms of her uncle's will, we are told in "A Princess of the Gutter,"§ a cultured young English heiress took up her abode in London's terrible East End slums, there to work as best she might for the uplifting of her fellow-men. The suffering she relieves and the heartaches she soothes we easily fore-

\* The Cambridge Natural History, Vol. V.: Peripatus, by Adam Sedgwick, M.A., F.R.S.; Myriapods, by F. G. Sinclair, M.A.; Insects, by David Sharp, M.A., M.B., F.R.S. 584 pp. \$4.00. New York: Macmillan and Co.

† An Introduction to the Philosophy of Herbert Spencer. By William Henry Hudson, Associate Professor of English Literature in Leland Stanford Junior University. 243 pp.—‡ Evolution and Ethics and Other Essays. By Thomas H. Huxley. 349 pp. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

§ A Princess of the Gutter. By L. T. Mead. 307 pp. \$1.25. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

\* Alternating Electric Currents. By Edwin J. Houston, Ph. D. (Princeton), and A. E. Kennelly, Sc. D. 236 pp. \$1.00. New York: The W. J. Johnston Company.

† Electricity for Everybody; Its Nature and Uses Explained. By Philip Atkinson, A. M., Ph. D. 250 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Century Co.

‡ The Forces of Nature. A Study of Natural Phenomena. By Herbert B. Harrop and Louis A. Wallis. 159 pp. Columbus, O.: Harrop & Wallis.



see, and the dark tragedies that touch her life as well, but we wonder at the end if she shares with us a sense of failure in the little she has really done to change the lives of the two she has most striven to influence.

Half a dozen clear-cut little vignettes of life are the "Russian Portraits,"\* sketched with the masterly stroke of the French Academician De Vogüé. Distinct in outline and detail, there is still present in each that intangible atmosphere of cheerful despair that invariably surrounds the Russian peasant and opens for him always the door of our hearts.

"The One Who Looked On"† tells us in the artless language of a well-bred, generous Irish girl the pathetic heart-story of a stern, cold London lawyer and baronet. Through the eyes of the brave little on-looker we see much that is interesting in the lives of her friends, but we wait in vain for her to reveal any happy love-affair of her own, and we close the book feeling a wee bit jealous and defrauded.

Napoleon in a new phase, but tyrant and conqueror still, is shown us in "Courtship by Command,"‡ a pretty story of love and war in which fact and fiction lend charm to each other.

A plucky little Cavalier lad, Jack Patten, of the bloody days of Cromwell, appears before us as the hero of a novelette|| whose historic attraction and literary merit are assured when we know the author to be Stanley J. Weyman, and a perusal of which happily fulfills our highest expectations.

We have all read and re-read so many sweet stories of Elizabeth Stuart Phelps, and we know so well her hardy New England fisherfolk and their self-satisfied Beacon Street antipodes—so well we know, too, her faithful feminine touch that lingers lovingly on the fortunate color of a maiden's gown, the artistic pose of a lovelorn lad, and the scenic effect of sea and sky on both, while painting in the softened shadows of an underlying sorrow—so well and so gladly we know it all that "A Singular Life"§ comes to us like a much-heard-of stranger with a letter of introduction—half familiar and wholly welcome. The religious trend of this book is deep and intense and our best emotions are stirred by the martyr's career of the handsome young hero.

If a preference wholly personal may be expressed, be it said that to one reader "London Idylls"¶

seems the best bit of English in this fiction list. The "Idylls" are ten quaint, vivacious, often piteous little stories, of decided individuality and instinct with a spirit of human brotherhood that draws the reader fully into sympathy with the characters.

#### Religious.

A delightful religious custom and one whose influence on the young cannot be overestimated is that of invoking divine blessing before entering upon the duties of the day. To promote this old-time ceremony and to make it attractive to every member of the household Bishop J. H. Vincent has arranged a helpful little book called "At the Table Altar."\* For each morning of the month a short Scripture lesson is given with beautiful thoughts from the author's own pen expressive of prayer and thanksgiving. A half dozen "Responses," suggestions for special days, and references for twenty lessons "to be committed by everybody," with space for a family record, including guests, complete the booklet.

"Always Upward"† is the title of a collection of well-written essays, twenty-four in all, on life, its aim, its significance, and the destiny of the soul. Throughout the series Christ is pointed out as the central figure toward which all humanity should tend, and to prove that there is a future state of immortality the author brings forth strong arguments founded on the revelation of the Holy Scriptures and the natural longings for eternal life implanted in every human heart.

Denominational history has a valuable contribution in "The Creeds and Platforms of Congregationalism."‡ The volume contains reproductions of the platforms and creeds formulated by that denomination since the sixteenth century, some of which are interesting not only in their relation to church history but as literary curiosities. These with the notes and comments supplied by Williston Walker, Ph. D., make a work indispensable to the Congregational theological student.

The revised edition of "Christianity in the United States"|| traces the history of "Protestantism, Romanism, and a variety of Divergent Elements" through the different periods of American history down to the present time. The facts, attractively presented, are fully verified by a large number of maps, charts, and tables of statistics, founded on the

\* Russian Portraits. By Vte. E. Melchior de Vogüé. Translated by Elisabeth L. Cary. 143 pp. 50 cts. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

† The One Who Looked On. By F. F. Montresor. 215 pp. —‡ Courtship by Command: A Story of Napoleon at Play. By M. M. Blake. 226 pp. 75 cts. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

|| A Little Wizard. By Stanley J. Weyman. 190 pp. 50 cts. New York: R. F. Fennell & Company.

§ A Singular Life. By Elizabeth Stuart Phelps. 426 pp. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

¶ London Idylls. By W. J. Dawson. 315 pp. \$1.25. New York and Boston: T. Y. Crowell & Co.

\* At the Table Altar. Meditations for a Month of Mornings. By Bishop J. H. Vincent. 56 pp. 50 cts.—† Always Upward. By Rev. Burdett Hart, D. D. 296 pp. \$1.25. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

‡ The Creeds and Platforms of Congregationalism. By Williston Walker, Ph. D. 612 pp. \$3.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

|| Christianity in the United States from the First Settlement down to the Present Time. By Daniel Dorchester, D. D. Revised Edition. 814 pp. \$3.50. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston & Curtis.

official publications of the different religious denominations. Altogether it is a valuable contribution to the studies in religious development in America.

"The New Life in Christ"\* is a series of short lectures by Joseph Agar Beet, D. D., intended as a sequel to a former volume, "Through Christ to God," by the same author. How the presence of the Holy Spirit in the heart influences the lives of men is discussed, and also how man is freed from the bondage of sin and enters into a life of liberty by salvation through Christ. By the study of the nature and source of this new life the attributes of the Holy Trinity are exhibited, and abundant Scripture references are given with which to fortify the statements made.

A rational view of the creation is presented in "Studies in Theology."† The author forcefully shows that no atom of matter, organic or inorganic, exists which does not show the creative force of an almighty power; that inorganic matter was created first and existed ages before the creation of organic matter, of which vegetable life was the first form; that by the exercise of a new energizing force animal life, of which man is the last and highest type created, was brought into existence; and that no one of the various forms of organic life evolved from another, but that they are closely related. His evidence is based on facts deduced from the study of astronomical and geological science as well as on philosophical principles.

The last volume of Renan's "History of the People of Israel,"‡ beginning with Jewish independence and closing with the Roman administration, is written in the same charming style which characterized the former volumes and reveals much concerning the character of the man. Though unorthodox in the doctrines set forth, it has great historical and literary merit.

Miscellaneous. The author of "Myths of Greece and Rome" has prepared a similar work on the mythology of the northern lands|| which shows the effect of the bold, rugged country of the cold regions on the religious belief of our northern ancestors. The fine illustrations and pure diction place it among the classic works of art and literature, and it merits the same appreciative reception which greeted the volume relating to the myths of the South.

\* The New Life in Christ. A Study in Personal Religion. By Joseph Agar Beet, D.D. 362 pp. \$1.50.—† Studies in Theology: Creation; God in Time and Space. By Randolph S. Foster, D. D., LL.D., Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Vol. IV. 378 pp. \$1.00. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston & Curtis.

‡ History of the People of Israel. By Ernest Renan. With full index to the five volumes. 400 pp. \$2.50. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

|| Myths of Northern Lands. By H. A. Guerber. 319 pp. \$1.50. New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago: American Book Company.

Of the many excellent books written exclusively for young men, "Successward,"\* by Edward Bok, deserves to rank among the first. The opinions and advice expressed in a concise though attractive manner are in no way fanciful, but are plain, practical common sense. Every phase of life is dealt with—business, social, and religious—showing that the author, himself a young man, knows thoroughly the needs of his fellow-men. It is a helpful book which should be read by every young man in the country.

Washington in the 60's must have been a most interesting city, judging from the account given by Noah Brooks in a book† founded on newspaper articles written by himself during that eventful period of American history. The principal events described by him cluster about the life of President Lincoln, and serve to recall many incidents of the Civil War.

Two volumes of Macmillan's School Library are "Roman Life in the Days of Cicero"‡ and "Stories from Virgil."§ Sketches from the letters and speeches of Cicero form the material for the former volume. Although Cicero is the central figure, Cæsar, Pompey, Cato, and Antony are brought into the narrative, which vividly pictures Roman life during the first years of the first century. In the latter volume the story of the Æneid is reproduced.

Part second of "Stories from English History"§ narrates interesting events which happened in that country from the time of Richard II. to Charles I. Several appropriate illustrations grace the pages of the book which with the easy, flowing style of the recitals make the scenes depicted living realities.

The custom of after-dinner speech making originated at the feudal feasts during the Middle Ages. So says the author of "Toasts and Forms of Public Addresses,"¶ a perfect boon to novices in the art of making happy responses to toasts, because of the suggestions it gives on what to say on such occasions and how to say it.

In spite of the rules for speaking and writing laid down by grammarians and rhetoricians, "slips of speech" will occur. These may be reduced to a minimum by a study of a little volume\*\* which not only points out many common errors made by speakers and writers but shows how to correct them.

\* Successward. A Young Man's Book for Young Men. By Edward W. Bok. 184 pp. \$1.00. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

† Washington in Lincoln's Time. By Noah Brooks. 338 pp. New York: The Century Co.

‡ Roman Life in the Days of Cicero. By the Rev. Alfred J. Church, M. A. 300 pp. 50 cents.—§ Stories from Virgil. By the Rev. Alfred J. Church, M. A. 291 pp. 50 cents.—§ Stories from English History. By the Rev. A. J. Church, M. A. 218 pp. New York: Macmillan & Co.

¶ Toasts and Forms of Public Address. By William Pittenger. 174 pp. 50 cents.—\*\* Slips of Speech. By John H. Bechtel. 217 pp. 50 cents. Philadelphia: The Penn Publishing Company.

